DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 215 242 CG 015 845

AUTHOR	Ball, Patricia G.; And Others
TITLE	Exploring Educational Equity: Sex-Affirmative Guide for Counseling and Teaching.
SPONS AGENCY	Women's Educational Equity Act Program (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	81
NOTE	553p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Education Development Center, 55 Chapel Street, Newton, MA 02160.
EDRS PRICE	MF02 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Learning; *Assertiveness; *Counseling Techniques; *Equal Education; Females; Higher Education; *Interest Inventories; *Job Search Methods; Learning Activities; *Sex Fairness; Teaching Guides; Training Methods; Workshops

ABSTRACT

This curriculum guide contains materials written for teachers or group leaders of graduate students in educational psychology, psychology, sociology, and child and family studies and is designed to reflect the basic assumptions of educational equity, i.e., sex-fair and sex-affirmative facilitator attitudes, and counseling and teaching techniques. Each of the five units--New Techniques for Counseling Women, Sex-Bias in Interest Measures, Women in Higher Education, Sex Affirmative Action in Education, and Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills--outlines the target audience, provides key definitions, and describes content limitations. Objectives, background information, facilitator preparation, suggested learning activities, review questions, activity handouts and bibliographies are included for each section. Developed with interchangeable formats for use in workshop settings, the units may be used as supplements or as self-contained course offerings. (MCF)

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EXPLORING EDUCATIONAL EQUITY:
SEX-AFFIRMATIVE GUIDE FOR COUNSELING AND TEACHING

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Printed and distributed by The WEEA Publishing Center, 1981,
at Education Development Center, 55 Chapel Street,
Newton, Massachusetts 02160

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CONTENTS

PREFACE ix
THE APPALACHIAN STAFF xi

UNIT ONE: NEW TECHNIQUES FOR COUNSELING WOMEN
Carolyn Patton-Crowder

1. FEMINIST THERAPY 5
Feminist Implications for Psychotherapy . . . Psychological Androgyny . . . Feminist Therapy Defined . . . Non-Sexist Therapy . . . Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions . . . Assumptions of Feminist Therapy . . . Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies . . . Feminist Therapy Strategies . . . Goals of Feminist Therapy . . . Feminist Therapists

2. ISSUES OF FEMINIST THERAPY 61
Power . . . Anger

3. WOMEN IN GROUPS 101
Consciousness-Raising Groups . . . Psychotherapy Groups . . . Problem-Solving Groups

4. SPECIAL APPLICATIONS OF MODERN THERAPEUTIC APPROACHES 131
Transactional Analysis . . . Gestalt Therapy . . . Behavioral Therapy . . . Rational Emotive Therapy (RET)

5. ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING AS THERAPY 163
Elizabeth A. Wyman
Sex-Role Socialization versus Assertiveness . . . The Rationale for Assertiveness Training . . . Definitions: Nonassertive, Aggressive, and Assertive . . . The Rights of Women . . . Assessing Areas of Deficiency . . . Developing an Assertive Belief System . . . The Nonverbal Message . . . Role Play . . . Behavioral Rehearsal . . . Group versus Individual Assertiveness Training . . . Ethical Considerations

UNIT TWO: SEX BIAS IN INTEREST MEASUREMENT
Tedd A. Stephens

1. MEASUREMENT & BIAS IN MEASUREMENT 5
Reliability . . . Validity . . . Test Bias

2. INTERESTS & INTEREST MEASUREMENT 21
Interest as a Consultant . . . Interest Test Development . . . Interest Testing and Career Theory . . . Research on Interests . . . Women's Interests

3. CRITICAL ISSUES ASSOCIATED WITH SEX BIAS IN INTEREST MEASUREMENT 43
Defining Sex Bias . . . Inventory Rationales . . . Sex-Role Socialization . . . Two Hypotheses Relating Interests and Satisfaction . . . One Form versus Two Forms . . . Scales . . . Norms . . . Inventory Language . . . Other Special Concerns

4. INCREASING SEX FAIRNESS IN INTEREST MEASUREMENT 67
The Use of Tests . . . Guidelines for Eliminating Sex Bias . . . Efforts to Eliminate Sex Bias in Inventories . . . Sex-Balanced Inventory Development . . . Rasch Model of Item Analysis . . . Changes in Career Counseling

UNIT THREE: WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION
Donna K. Young

1. WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A TOPIC FOR CONSIDERATION 5

2. TRACING THE WOMEN'S HIGHER EDUCATION MOVEMENT 35
Historical Perspective . . . Socioeconomic Forces

3. A PROFILE OF ACADEMIC WOMEN 77
Characterization . . . Continuing Education for Women . . . Socialization . . . Institutional Barriers . . . Internal Barriers

4. USING A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO UNDERSTAND THE SYSTEM 127

5. MAKING IT IN THE ACADEMIC WORLD 173

UNIT FOUR: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION: A WORKSHOP
Nan E. Scott

1. AN OVERVIEW: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION 5
Presentation of Definitions . . . Group Activity: Defining the Roles . . . Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Action in Education: An Introductory Assessment

2. FOCUSING IN: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATION IN YOUR SCHOOL . . . 19
Introduction Exercise . . . Lecturette . . . Group Activity: The Sex-Affirmative Educator . . . Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Education in Action . . . Group Activity: What Can Be Done about Biased Textbooks? . . . Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for the Public School . . . Group Activity: Commitment Support Dyad

UNIT FIVE: ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING FOR JOB-SEEKING SKILLS: A WORKSHOP

Patricia G. Ball

1. AN INTRODUCTION TO ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING 5
   Ethical Considerations

2. ASSERTIVENESS IN THE JOB-SEEKING PROCESS. 37

3. BEHAVIOR REHEARSAL IN THE INTERVIEW SETTING 77

4. SPECIAL CONCERNS & SPECIAL GROUPS 83

Preface

The Appalachian Center for Educational Equity (ACEE)--Year II, a model training program in educational psychology and guidance, was a federal grant funded through the Women's Educational Equity Act. The development of the teaching and learning guides contained in this book represents the major objective of the second year of operation of ACEE at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Other objectives for the second year included the training of exemplary leaders in the fields related to educational psychology and the testing and validation of the sex-fair and sex-affirmative materials.

The primary goal of the two-year project was the development, implementation, and validation of nine curriculum guides. These guides were designed for the facilitators of teaching and learning in higher education and the materials were intended for use as supplements to the existing instructional materials or as self-contained course offerings. In addition, the materials were developed with interchangeable formats so that they would also be suitable for use in workshop settings. The Appalachian Center for Educational Equity--Year II developed five sets of materials that could be used in departments of educational psychology, psychology, and sociology, and in child and family studies.

Exploring Educational Equity is composed of units written for the teacher or group leader. Each unit begins with assumptions which outline the target audience, provide key definitions, and describe any limitations of the materials. The five units are composed of a series of lessons containing objectives, narrative, facilitator preparation, suggested learning activities, review questions, handouts for learning activities and extensive bibliographies.

Certain assumptions regarding teaching and learning are considered basic to the application of these curriculum materials. The essential elements include sex-fair and sex-affirmative attitudes on the part of the facilitator, a commitment to sex-fair and sex-affirmative counseling and teaching techniques, an ideology which encourages the integration of human traits, and a sensitivity to the values and needs of the classroom participants.

The staff at ACEE would like to extend sincere appreciation to the individuals who served as the internal panel of experts and the external panel of experts. The internal reviewers consisted of experts from the University of Tennessee campus and from other areas of the region. These persons include Monique Anderson, Julie Bumpus, Rosemary Burr, Ruth Darling, Kathleen Davis, Dixie Fletcher, Susan Gordon, Pamela Howison, Schuyler Huck, Ken McCollough, John Peters, Karen Swander, and Yvonne Woods.

The external reviewers consisted of a panel of national experts who are noted authorities in the various areas covered in the book. The national panel of experts included Pauline R. Clance, Jane Goodman, Lenore W. Harmon, Peggy Hawley, Kathryn M. Moore, Mary Sue Richardson, and Donna Shavlik.

The Appalachian Center Staff

As the year has progressed, the Appalachian Center staff has been extremely productive. We have developed teaching/learning materials, participated in local, regional and national conferences, and served as consultants on sex-affirmative education at the University of Tennessee. One of the high points of our year was hosting a national conference at the University of Tennessee in May. Throughout our year of work, we have been aware that our most important resource has been the staff members themselves. Every staff member has been flexible and cooperative toward the attainment of individual and group goals. The following descriptions will provide the reader with a personal introduction to our staff.

PATRICIA BALL is the Director of the Appalachian Center and is an Assistant Professor in Educational Psychology and Guidance at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Pat has been responsible for the day-to-day operation at the Center and has coordinated (with Carolyn Patton-Crowder) the development of the Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills workshop. During the year, Pat has represented the Center at numerous conferences and was chosen as a delegate to the Rural American Woman Conference in Washington, D.C. Pat served as the educational psychology and guidance liaison and field tested, edited, and coordinated many of the components in The Female Experience in America course module during Year I of Appalachian Center funding. Pat is a gifted dancer, and recently ACEE staff members had the pleasure of cheering for her in her Spring Dance Performance.

JEAN DYER was in charge of budgeting at the Appalachian Center during Year I and the first two quarters of Year II. During that time she also handled university procedures and was the office expert in the area of university policy. Jean loves plants, animals, hiking in the mountains, and bright-colored sun hats.

KAREN LOUNSBURY, a developmental psychologist in the Psychology Department at the University of Tennessee, consulted with ACEE regarding style editing of the materials. She teaches courses on socialization and research topics and is knowledgeable of the content areas addressed in ACEE materials.

DONNA MARTIN is the Office Manager at the Appalachian Center. Donna has been in charge of the resource room and general office management.

She worked on the budget during the last several months when the allocating of funds became the most critical and has kept schedules and personnel papers for each staff member. Donna is an Appalachian woman poet who was published in the Magazine of Appalachian Women this year. She is an accomplished pianist and a needlework artist whose creations brighten the Center. She is also the mother of one child, Nikki.

MARY ELLEN MCLOUGHLIN, Assistant Director of the Appalachian Center, completed her doctoral work this year in the Educational Psychology and Guidance Department, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. During Year II, Mary Ellen has been the editor for the ACEE product, Exploring Educational Equity. The lessons in career counseling issues contained in The Female Experience in America were authored by Mary Ellen during Year I at the Appalachian Center. Her primary research interest is the career development of women as reflected in her dissertation, "Vocational Maturity and the Female Career Process." This year Mary Ellen worked with Liz Wyman on the special issues of counseling traditional wives and mothers, which was their contribution to the APA Division 17 Ad Hoc Committee on Women project on the Standards for Counseling Women. "M.E." has also been the social director at the Center, seeing to it that we mixed a little pleasure with our business. Her son, Chad Mitchell, has been the ACEE mascot.

CYNTHIA NICHOLS has only been with the Center for several months but is like a member of the family. She has been an efficient, organized, and thoroughly enjoyable addition to our staff. She has been most involved in the typing of final drafts of ACEE materials. Cindy plans to complete her B.S. in education and teach in the public schools prior to entering graduate school. Cindy enjoys movies, plays, and vacations to the beach.

CAROLYN PATTON-CROWDER has been a Staff Specialist at the Appalachian Center this year and has coordinated the Exploring Educational Equity unit. Carolyn is a doctoral student in educational psychology and guidance at the University of Tennessee. One of her areas of research focus has been Appalachian women, which may be related to the fact that she was born in Calderwood, Tennessee, in the heart of the Appalachian mountains. Carolyn researched the topics included in Appalachian Women and wrote a definite and historical article, "Sex Roles in Appalachia," during Year I at the Appalachian Center. Carolyn is a runner and is the Center's resident authority on assertive behavior and plant growing. She is also the mother of three children: Chandra, Barry and Tyson.

NAN SCOTT has served as Assistant Director of the Appalachian Center this year. During Year II she has coordinated the development of the Sex-Affirmative Action in Education workshop and has field tested ACEE materials in courses in the Educational Psychology and Guidance Department, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She has also written the quarterly progress reports and coordinated the final report. Last year Nan contributed the psychology of women lessons contained in The Female Experience in America. Nan completed her doctorate this year in the interdisciplinary option, College of Home Economics, University of Tennessee, Knoxville; her major was in human development. Her interests include photography, art, country music and living creatures.

TEDD STEPHENS, a Staff Specialist at the Appalachian Center, is working toward his doctorate in educational psychology and guidance. The Sex Bias in Interest Measurement unit has been Tedd's main focus this year at the Center. He has been the staff evaluation specialist, designing our conference pretest and posttest measurement forms and coordinating the evaluation segment of the final report. Tedd's tennis game and serving abilities have improved greatly this year. Tedd holds the ACEE high jump and talking awards for the year.

JOELLA WASHBURN provided the artwork for the Appalachian Center teaching/learning materials. JoElla is the artist for the College of Agriculture, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She is from Jackson County, Tennessee, in the foothills of the Appalachian Mountains. JoElla explains the symbolism reflected in the logo she designed as follows: "The moon is the feminine symbol, the mountains are symbolic of the Appalachians, and the base is an equals sign, signifying the educational equity that we are all working toward."

EDNA SOUTHERLAND WIELAND is the ACEE Graduate Assistant and a graduate student in educational psychology and guidance at the University of Tennessee. Edna has worn many hats at the Appalachian Center. Her first priority has been serving as an in-house style editor for our materials. She has also coordinated the quarterly newsletters that we have distributed to faculty and ACEE supporters and has assisted in the development of the intrastaff evaluation process. Edna has become a home owner and a successful gardener this year. With all of her responsibilities, she still finds time for music (singing, playing the piano), meditation, yoga, and health foods.

ELIZABETH WYMAN is a doctoral student in educational psychology and guidance at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Liz was a Staff Specialist at ACEE--Year I and responsible for the coordination of Special Issues in Counseling Women. At ACEE--Year II, Liz was the author of "Assertiveness Training as Therapy," lesson 5 in New Approaches to Counseling Women. Liz is an intern at Lakeshore Mental Health Center and she participated this year in the APA Division 17 Ad Hoc Committee on Women project on the Standards for Counseling Women. She is an excellent writer, an accomplished guitar player, and a relocated northerner who has become a true Appalachian woman.

DONNA YOUNG is a Staff Specialist at the Appalachian Center for Educational Equity this year, where her major responsibility has been the coordination of the Women in Higher Education unit. She completed her doctorate this year in educational psychology and guidance, with collateral areas in industrial management and continuing and higher education. Donna has been an administrator in a Tennessee community college and is committed to the community college concept, as evidenced by her dissertation topic, "Crucial Issues Facing Tennessee Community Colleges." Donna is a runner whose spirit may be stronger than her stride, as she spent spring quarter in a splint.

UNIT I

NEW TECHNIQUES FOR COUNSELING WOMEN

Carolyn Patton-Crowder
Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

This teaching-learning unit was prepared for graduate students in education, psychology, social work, nursing, or medicine. The purpose is to provide a means by which students can become familiar with some recently developed techniques for counseling women. Several assumptions are made about the students and facilitators. One assumption is that the students have basic counseling knowledge and skills which include empathy and responding skills as well as familiarity with a variety of counseling techniques. Another assumption is that the students have experienced a basic psychology of women course. Such a course should have included discussions regarding women in reference to sex-role socialization, ambivalence and role conflict, achievement motivation, psychological treatment, and sexuality; critical incidents in female development such as middle-aged depression, widowhood, divorce and assault; and a study of the particular psychosocial aspects of minority women. An outline of such a course is included in the Appendix.

Additional assumptions are made regarding the facilitators. Facilitators should have advanced counseling skills as well as an intensive knowledge of the psychology of women. Furthermore, they should be comfortable using a small-group teaching approach.

The teaching-learning model used in the development of this unit views students as potential teaching resources who determine their own learning objectives (Lord, 1971). Furthermore, it is assumed that students take responsibility for their own learning. In addition to the common learning objectives the facilitators pose for the class, the students should define personal objectives and present a plan outlining the procedure to be followed to accomplish the chosen task. The facilitators serve as resource persons and coordinators of the teaching-learning experience.

Each of the five lessons is composed of objectives, narrative, facilitator preparation, suggested learning activities, review questions, handouts for learning activities, and a bibliography. The objectives are listed with related resources, and the facilitators are encouraged to select those objectives more meaningful to their situation. The narrative summarizes the main points and contains materials which can be duplicated and used as a part of a class discussion or which can serve as an outline for a mini-lecture. Suggested learning activities are intended as an experiential means of meeting the objectives and are to be used in conjunction with the readings. The bibliography has been extended to include resources available other than those utilized for this unit. Those entries marked with an asterisk (*) directly address the objectives and should be read thoroughly. Since the lessons vary in length, the facilitators are encouraged to use the teaching-learning unit as a resource in developing specific lesson plans designed for a particular time frame.

Since the literature concerned with the psychology of women changes rapidly, it is suggested that the teaching-learning unit be used as a handbook in progress (to keep it updated). To keep abreast of the current literature, the facilitator should review current professional journals. In addition to well-known periodicals such as American Psychologist, Counseling Psychologist, Journal of Counseling Psychology, and Voices: Journal of the American Academy of Psychotherapists, the literature dealing more specifically with sex roles and in particular with women should be reviewed. The following journals are suggested: Feminist Studies, The Psychology of Women Quarterly, Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, and Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society. These journals are listed in the appendix. It is also suggested that the facilitator insert with each lesson additional learning activities as well as bibliographical information.

The unit was developed from a white female feminist perspective. No attempt was made to include males, since the focus is on women. The reader is referred to The Black Female Experience and Appalachian Women for a discussion of those minority groups using the teaching-learning format. An outline of these units is included in the appendix. The techniques addressed here are general enough to be used with minority groups, although more specific information regarding psychosocial factors in minority groups is needed.

In this section, the word "therapy" is often used. We feel there is no difference in the terms "counseling" and "therapy" in their specific relationship to a person. Each provides a process and method technique. The goals and outcomes are not different and the clients are the same. "For convenience, however, counseling often refers to work done with less seriously disturbed clients or with clients who have rather specific problems with less accompanying general personal disturbance, usually in a non-medical setting, while psychotherapy refers to work with more seriously disturbed clients, usually in a medical setting."*

---

* Reference: C.H. Patterson, Theories of Counseling and Psychotherapy, second edition, New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

OUTLINE

Lesson 1: Feminist Therapy

- A. Feminist Implications for Psychotherapy
- B. Psychological Androgyny
- C. Feminist Therapy Defined
- D. Nonsexist Therapy
- E. Nonsexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions
- F. Assumptions of Feminist Therapy
- G. Nonsexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies
- H. Feminist Therapy Strategies
- I. Goals of Feminist Therapy
- J. Feminist Therapists

Lesson 2: Issues of Feminist Therapy

- A. Power
- B. Anger

Lesson 3: Women in Groups

- A. Consciousness-raising Groups
- B. Psychotherapy Groups
- C. Problem-solving Groups

Lesson 4: Special Applications of Modern Therapeutic Approaches

- A. Transactional Analysis
- B. Gestalt Therapy
- C. Behavioral Therapy
- D. Rational Emotive Therapy (RET)

Lesson 5: Assertiveness Training as Therapy

- A. Sex-Role Socialization versus Assertiveness
- B. The Rationale for Assertiveness Training
- C. Definitions: Nonassertive, Aggressive, and Assertive
- D. The Rights of Women
- E. Assessing Areas of Deficiency
- F. Developing an Assertive Belief System
- G. Importance of an Assertive Belief System
- H. The Nonverbal Message
- I. Role Play
- J. Behavior Rehearsal
- K. Group versus Individual Assertiveness Training
- L. Ethical Considerations

LESSON 1

FEMINIST THERAPY

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to discuss and debate the extent to which sex bias and sex-role stereotypes affect psychotherapeutic practice.

   References: American Psychological Association (APA) Task Force, 1975; Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970; Fabrikant, 1974; Holroyd, 1976; Marecek & Kravetz, 1977; Rawlings & Carter, 1977; Stricker, 1977.

2. To be able to discuss psychological androgyny as a model of mental health.

   References: Bem, 1977; Kaplan, 1976; Marecek, 1977.

3. To be able to discuss the therapeutic aspects of feminism.

   References: Cherniss, 1972; Holroyd, 1976; Mander, 1977; Mander & Rush, 1974.

4. To be able to discuss the assumptions, strategies, and goals of feminist therapy.

   References: Barrett, Berg, Eaton, & Pomeroy, 1974; Holroyd, 1976; Klein, 1976; Lerman, 1976; Levin, 1976; Marecek & Kravetz, 1977; Rawlings & Carter, 1977.

5. To be able to discuss the requirements necessary for being identified as a feminist therapist.

   References: Aslin, 1977; Lazarus, 1974; Tanny & Birk, 1976.

NARRATIVE

The recent surge of feminism which began in the mid 1960's has affected psychotherapy both in theory and in practice. Promoted by national trends of increasing female participation in the work force, increasing divorce rates, a decreasing birthrate, and the rise in the average age of marriage for women, feminism has sought to aid women in defining new roles for themselves (Westervelt, 1973). Furthermore, a double standard of mental health is indicated by research (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970; Fabrikant, 1974). Using this double standard, psychologists expect women to be more passive and dependent than men, even though these traits are not ideal for mental health. Healthy women are perceived as being significantly less healthy than men by adult standards, while the general standard of mental health is applied only to men. In view of this information, many psychologists have insisted that psychotherapeutic practices regarding sex bias be investigated.

One of the results of the increasing awareness of women's changing roles and sex bias in psychotherapeutic practice was the establishment of the American Psychological Association (APA) Task Force on Sex Bias and Sex-Role Stereotyping in Psychotherapeutic Practice. This committee identified two problems central to sexism in psychotherapeutic practice with women: (1) "the question of values in psychotherapy and (2) the therapist's knowledge of psychological processes in women" (American Psychological Association Task Force, 1975, p. 1169). In their research, the Task Force surveyed 2000 women APA members. From 320 replies which were received, four general categories of perceived sex bias and sex-role stereotyping affecting women as clients of psychotherapy emerged:

1. fostering traditional sex roles;
2. bias in expectations and devaluations of women;
3. sexist use of psychoanalytic concepts;
4. responding to women as sex objects, including seduction of female clients.

(APA Task Force, 1975, p. 1170)

In the 1975 report the Task Force made several recommendations. They were:

1. greater sensitivity and awareness of the problems of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping in psychotherapeutic practice;
2. the development of guidelines for non-sexist psychotherapeutic practice;
3. formal criteria and procedures to evaluate the education and training of psychotherapists in the psychology of women, sexism in psychotherapy and related issues;
4. the inclusion of statements regarding sexism in Ethical Standards of Psychologists as well as the inclusion of illustrative case material in the Casebook on Ethical Standards of Psychologists.

(APA Task Force, 1975, p. 1174)

The issue of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping in psychotherapeutic practice is controversial. In a recent article, one author concluded, "While sexism undoubtedly occurs in individual cases, further evidence is needed to define the generality of the phenomenon" (Striker, 1977, p. 14). Furthermore, the author questioned the accuracy of the Broverman et al. research, stating, "Widely cited conclusions concerning a double standard of mental health and negative evaluations of women are premature in light of the data" (Stricker, 1977, p. 21).

Although the existence of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping in therapeutic situations is a controversial issue, in the opinion of the writer, the need for sex-fair counseling approaches is well established. The purpose of this lesson is to review the extent to which sex bias and sex-role stereotyping affect psychotherapeutic practice, to discuss the therapeutic aspects of feminism, to compare and contrast non-sexist and feminist therapies, and to explore the underlying goals and assumptions of feminist therapy.

Feminist Implications for Psychotherapy

Traditional female socialization teaches passivity, dependency, powerlessness and helplessness and does not prepare females to operate as fully functioning people with active and independent traits (Broverman et al., 1970). Feminist ideology encourages women to add more active, assertive, and independent behaviors to their repertoire. Economically, feminism encourages women to become independent (Holroyd, 1976). Feminists believe that meaningful work is growth producing and should be remunerated. Whether the traditional nuclear family is a supportive structure for women is questioned by some feminists (Bernard, 1971). Furthermore, many feminists are engaged in exploring non-traditional relationships as well as non-traditional family organizations (Vida, 1978).

Westervelt (1973) compared traditional and feminist expectations of women in our society. Whereas patriarchal ideology may encourage covert aggression, which is often manipulative, feminist thought encourages direct expression of thoughts and feelings. Rather than promoting competitive behaviors for individual achievement, feminism encourages women to cooperatively assert their rights to greater political and economic power. Thus, equal opportunities for women and new interacting behaviors for both men and women can be attained. The importance of the capacity for both men and women to display nurturing behaviors is affirmed by feminists. Although feminists do not consider women's capacity for nurturance a characteristic which should determine what roles they are permitted to perform, feminism encourages women to concern themselves with the quality of relationships and the welfare of others in whatever roles they attain. Dependence, or at least an outward display of dependence, has been a traditional component of feminine behavior. In contrast, independent behavior is considered by feminists to be absolutely essential to the advancement of women. The development of independent, self-initiating traits has been encouraged by social forces which indicate the following conditions for women: (1) greater economic responsibilities, (2) marital instability, (3) increased child-care responsibilities, and (4) greater freedom of choice in sexual matters.

The concerns that women bring to the counseling situation are varied and complex. Many women are looking for new ways of behaving, since they have been socialized for roles which no longer exist or which are psychologically and socially constricting and unstable (Westervelt, 1973). Conflicts also change with dynamic social forces. For example, the choice of career or marriage may no longer be the prevailing concern of female college students. How to combine the two in view of problems inherent in each is more likely to be the question. Failing to meet the standards of achievement a woman has set for herself, combined with guilt over not meeting traditional role expectations, may be another source of conflict. The consequences of independent behavior may be social opposition and rejection rather than the support and encouragement women require as they struggle to redefine themselves. Problems will arise as women exercise a greater freedom of choice regarding sexual matters. In short, as women learn to take responsibility for their behaviors and give up dependency and helplessness, different conflicts will develop.

In addition to pinpointing the biases against women reflected in our culture through sex-role stereotyping, the devaluation of women, and institutionalized sexism, feminist researchers have called attention to biased assumptions underlying a great deal of theory and research on women and mental health (Marecek & Kravetz, 1977). Elsewhere in the literature, researchers have noted that male behavior is used as the standard against which female behavior is judged by some traditional psychoanalylic therapists, e.g., Freud's assumptions of penis envy and Opedipal conflict. Feminist researchers insist that this approach is misleading and detrimental to female development. Furthermore, the researchers emphasized that the female experience is important in its own right.

Other areas of research deserving consideration would investigate the interplay of biological, psychosocial, political, and economic forces which influence individual behavior (Marecek & Kravetz, 1977). Rather than using biology to explain women's feelings and behavior, feminists emphasize women's socialization, cultural norms, and values about women, as well as societal responses to women. Maracek and Kravetz (1977) cited as examples the work of John Money and Anke Ehrhardt, which suggested that gender differentiation and gender identity occur via social processes, not biological programming. Nor, apparently, do they develop rapidly as Kohlberg (1966) and other gender identity researchers (Slaby & Frey, 1975) have demonstrated. The authors also included Bart's research on depression, which suggested that women's social situation plays a determining role in their psychological health. In addition, Marecek (1977) attributed many instances of women's psychological disorders to social conditions rather than to psychic forces.

In summary, the research findings indicated the need for societal changes which would facilitate women's psychological health. The relaxing of rigid sex-role requirements, the abolition of institutional and interpersonal sexism, and the introduction of greater flexibility in marital and family roles are examples of such changes.

Psychological Androgyny

Psychological androgyny as a model of mental health has been proposed as an alternative to the traditional double standard model (Bem, 1977; Kaplan, 1976; Marecek, 1977). Psychological androgyny is a concept of mental health which is free from culturally imposed definitions of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1977). Androgyny is "the combination and integration of masculine and feminine modes of behaving and experiencing" (Marecek, 1977, p. 199). Although the concept of psychological androgyny has yet to be widely researched, Sandra Bem has attempted to clarify the idea through beginning research. She states, "An androgynous personality would thus represent the very best of what masculinity and femininity have each come to represent, and the more negative exaggerations of masculinity and femininity would tend to be cancelled out" (Bem, 1977, p. 51).

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI), a paper-and-pencil instrument, was developed to distinguish androgynous individuals from those with more sex-typed self-concepts (Bem, 1977). The BSRI consists of twenty masculine personality characteristics, twenty feminine personality characteristics and twenty filler items. Both feminine and masculine traits are viewed positively and independently of one another. After administering the BSRI, conducting research regarding cross-sex behavior, and further researching independence and nurturance, Bem summarized the findings regarding androgyny and sex-typing.

Bem described the androgynous male as one who shuns no behavior just because our culture happens to label it as female. Furthermore, his competence crosses both the instrumental (a cognitive focus on problem solving) and the expressive (an affective concern for the welfare of others) domains. In contrast, the feminine male does well only in the expressive domain, whereas the masculine male does well only in the instrumental domain. Bem observed that thresholds for tender emotionality are higher for masculine males than for all the other men and women involved in the research (Bem, 1977).

Androgynous women in Bem's research also performed behaviors that our culture has labeled as unsuitable for their sex. They, too, functioned effectively in both the instrumental and the expressive domains. The masculine female performed well in the instrumental domain. The feminine woman unwillingly performed cross-sex behaviors and her pattern of expressiveness was mixed. When in a situation which required initiation of expressiveness, she was not as nurturing as when in a situation permitting passive expressiveness (Bem, 1977).

Bem conjectured that the major effect of femininity on women may be to inhibit any behavior in a situation where the expected behavior is ambiguous. She further speculated that the feminine woman may be overly concerned with the possible negative consequences of her "masculine" behavior and thus become inhibited. She concluded her speculations by stating that "femininity may be what produces nurturant feelings in women, but that at least a threshhold level of masculinity is required to provide the initiative and perhaps even the daring to translate those nurturant feelings into action" (Bem, 1977, p. 225).

Marecek (1977) noted that both masculine and feminine sex types, when carried to extremes, limit the individual's range of coping mechanism and interfere with one's ability to respond with flexibility to emerging situations. Furthermore, she stated "The 'feminine' triad of passivity, dependency, and docility resembles the clinical syndromes of depression or passive personality disorders" (Marecek, 1977, pp. 199-200).

Three sets of demographic facts which relate to the question of androgyny were reviewed by Marecek (1977). The first set is concerned with bisocial change. An androgynous woman would have greater flexibility to make the transition from a home-centered life style to a work-centered life style when her children have left the household. Such a woman would have fewer behavioral adjustments to make in order to carry on a single life style should she become widowed. In addition, androgynous people might find retirement more stimulating since they would have more diversified interests.

The second set of demographic facts involves androgyny as a byproduct of women's participation in the labor force. Reorganization of household responsibilities, as well as more equally distributed power in marriages, has resulted from the increasing numbers of mothers in the United States holding paid jobs outside the home. The number of such women has doubled in the past two decades (Marecek, 1977).

The third set of demographic facts discussed by Marecek concerns the ratio and timing of marriages, childbirth, and divorce in the United States. Trends in the timing of marriages include (1) the slight rise in the average age of women marrying for the first time, (2) more women postponing marriage until their education is completed, (3) more women committed to working while married, and (4) increasing numbers of women living independent of their parents before marriage. Furthermore, the recent decline in the birthrate indicates a shorter time period for women to devote to child care. Additionally, with the rise in the rate of divorce, women are currently the vast majority of single parents (Marecek, 1977).

Intellectual discipline, initiative, assertiveness, and other qualities conventionally regarded as masculine, in combination with femininine traits such as nurturance, sensitivity to others, and understanding, are required as women incur multi-faceted roles such as employee, mother, student, spouse, and/or single parent.

In Kaplan's (1976) opinion, psychological pathology originates from either of two extremes: (1) overly sex-typed reactions, and/or (2) the absence of responses that are assigned to the opposite sex. In psychotherapy, she recommends an investigation of the stereotypic standards our culture has placed on a woman. By using a model of androgyny in therapy, a therapist may help a woman client to broaden her sense of what is appropriate and acceptable behavior.

Kaplan illustrated her conceptualization of psychotherapy as a resocialization process with a discussion of aggression and dependency. Aggression is a trait which women in our society have consistently been encouraged to suppress. In fact, the less aggressive a woman appears to be, the more feminine she is considered. In therapy, a woman's training in nonaggression may develop into an issue of how she expresses or does not express her anger. Resocialization occurs as the therapist helps the woman recognize and effectively express her anger.

Dependency is a trait which is learned by women in our society (Kaplan, 1976). One of the issues arising in therapy specific to a woman's dependent training is her reliance on others for approval, acceptance, and guidance. The therapist should be alert to signs that the client holds back from evaluating her own behavior or too often looks to others for approval. With psychotherapy viewed as a resocialization process, helping a woman develop self-reliance and independence becomes a primary goal (Kaplan, 1976).

The issues in feminist therapy can be viewed from a psychologically androgynous conception of mental health. Behaviors of people can be investigated from an ideal model incorporating the positive aspects of masculinity and femininity. For example, one question that might be investigated when exploring a person's behavior is, "Is the person self-reliant, independent, and assertive, as well as gentle, understanding, and tender?" Other behaviors can be investigated from the viewpoint Kaplan (1976) suggested. An example of the question posed from her opinion might be, "Is the behavior an overly sex-typed reaction?" and/or, "What responses are absent that are usually assigned to the opposite sex?" The concept of androgyny offers a positive, dynamic viewpoint of mental health.

Feminist Therapy Defined

The women's movement of the 1960's has given rise in the early 1970's to feminist therapy. Mander and Rush (1974) defined feminism as "the freeing of all people from the restrictions of their culturally defined sexual roles and the focus on balancing out the centuries of negation of female energy by the positive assertion and development of it in the world today" (p. 39). With integration as its main focus, feminism attempts to reconcile the polarities between the subjective and objective, the rational and intuitive, and the masculine and feminine. Feminism is a political term in the sense that politics refers to "one's relationship to power" (Mander & Rush, 1974, p. 51). An examination of the political context of personal experience is basic to feminism. Through consciousness-raising groups and by exploring herstory (history) which focuses on female contributions, feminism encourages women to examine and share personal experience, personal histories, and records of their foremothers' activities. Through body therapy, feminism fosters an exploration of the ways inner thoughts and feelings are manifested physically. Focusing on change rather than adjustment, feminism becomes a therapy based on integrated healing. Feminist therapy is termed "missing link" therapy by Mander and Rush (1974, p. 59) since it combines modified traditional theories with developments of the women's movement.

Feminist therapy focuses on identifying sexism and the effects of its oppression on women. Since feminist therapists believe that personal change and sociopolitical change are linked, the relationship between the goals of treatment and social change is emphasized (Marecek & Kravetz, 1977). Reflecting feminist principles, it encourages non-authoritarian group structures and promotes equal sharing of resources, power, and responsibility. Group therapy is preferred, since it moves away from personal isolation toward a recognition of shared problems, and since it moves away from singular authority figures toward a more collective sharing of responsibility. Although it would be possible to deny responsibility for behavior change by blaming men for oppression, blaming the society at large for inappropriate socialization, or demanding that only men change, feminist therapists discourage and confront such responses as a part of therapeutic intervention.

Non-Sexist Therapy

Non-sexist therapy also deals with the issue of sexism. The primary difference between non-sexist therapy and feminist therapy lies in the focus.

> In non-sexist therapy (as in traditional therapies), the focus of treatment is individual change and the modification of personal behavior. In feminist therapy (as in radical therapy), the critique of society and social institutions is a central element. Social change is considered the necessary counterpart to personal change (Marecek & Kravetz, 1977, p. 326).

Philosophically, other differences are found, as feminist therapy incorporates a feminist political position in its therapeutic values and strategies, while non-sexist therapy does not. Although both may function in an egalitarian model promoting (1) equal opportunities for males and females to gain personal, political-institutional and economic power and (2) equitable interaction between persons, non-sexist therapies do so from humanistic motivations, whereas feminist therapy does so from a political position.

Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions

Both non-sexist therapy and feminist therapy incorporate some of the same assumptions and strategies. Rawlings and Carter (1977, pp. 51-52) list and discuss these bases of therapy:

1. Therapists are aware of their own values.
2. There are no prescribed sex-role behaviors.
3. Sex-role reversals in life style are not labeled pathological.
4. Marriage is not regarded as a better outcome of therapy for a female than for a male.
5. Females are expected to be as autonomous and assertive as males; males are expected to be as expressive and tender as females.
6. Psychological theories of behavior based on anatomical differences are rejected.

Assumptions of Feminist Therapy

A summary of the work of Rawlings and Carter (1977, pp. 54-57) indicates that feminist therapy further assumes the following:

1. The inferior status of women is due to their having less political and economic power than men.
2. A working-class client is just as valued as an upper- or middle-class client.
3. The primary source of women's pathology is social, not personal; external, not internal.
4. The focus on environmental stress as a major source of pathology is not used as an avenue of escape from individual responsibility.
5. Opposition to personal adjustment to social conditions; the goal is social and political change.
6. Other women are not the enemy.
7. Men are not the enemy either.
8. Women must be economically and psychologically autonomous.
9. Relationships of friendship, love, and marriage should be equal in personal power.
10. Major differences between "appropriate" sex-role behaviors must disappear.

Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies

Concerning strategies, both non-sexist and feminist therapists:

1. Do not use the power of their position to subtly reinforce or punish clients for exhibiting "appropriate" or "inappropriate" feminine or masculine behaviors.
2. Do not use diagnoses which are based on a client's failure to achieve culturally prescribed sex-role behaviors.
3. Do not use sex-biased testing instruments.

(Rawlings & Carter, 1977)

Feminist Therapy Strategies

Although feminist therapy does not endorse any one set of therapeutic techniques, several strategies are recommended which address the underlying assumptions. The following major strategies are summarized from Rawlings and Carter (1977, pp. 58-63).

1. Counselors make their values explicit before therapy begins or as soon as possible.
2. The personal power between the client and therapist should approach equality.
3. Women are encouraged to be autonomous people.
4. Before therapy begins, the client and therapist enter into a contract specifying the behavior the client wants to change.

5. Sex-role analysis is employed as a treatment technique.
6. Women should be given sufficient personal support and help in analyzing emotional and social barriers and their goals.
7. Women are taught how to use straight communication and how to drop covert, manipulative behavior.
8. Women should have the means or the skills to be financially independent.
9. The therapist usually takes what the client says at face value.
10. The therapist confronts contradictory behavior.
11. The clients are given the tools to be their own therapists.
12. Diagnostic testing is not ordinarily used.
13. If clients are given tests, they are entitled to the results.
14. The clients have access to reading whatever is in their charts, especially material being shared with other agencies or professionals.
15. The therapist does not use diagnostic labels.
16. Feminist therapy with women is done most effectively in groups.
17. Engaging in social action is an essential professional responsibility of therapists.
18. Clients are encouraged to engage in social action on their own behalf.

Goals of Feminist Therapy

The primary goal of feminist therapy is to facilitate the development of autonomous individuals who are valued in their own right (Barrett, Berg, Eaton, & Pomeroy, 1974). Goals which are consistent with goals of other psychotherapies, as well as with the political tenets of feminism, are (1) to help women discover their personal strengths, (2) to achieve a sense of independence, (3) to view themselves as equals in interpersonal relationships, and (4) to respect and trust themselves and other women (Marecek & Kravetz, 1977).

Feminist Therapists

Feminist therapists are mental health practitioners as well as feminists. To qualify as a feminist therapist, a counselor should be committed to a feminist philosophy and apply feminist principles to her/his own personal and professional life. She/he should also be knowledgeable of the literature concerned with feminist issues and women's oppression and should have participated in a consciousness-raising group (Rawlings & Carter, 1977).

Research regarding the effect of the sex of the therapist on female clients is contradictory (Tanney & Birk, 1976). While the debate continues in the literature regarding the advisability of having male or female counselors for male clients, as well as regarding differences of opinion among feminists, Rawlings and Carter (1977) conclude that non-sexist and feminist men who are knowledgeable about women's problems are qualified to treat women. Furthermore, they state, non-sexist and feminist men would be more appropriate than a sexist female, however skilled she may be in her therapy approach. The inability of men to serve as role models and the power differences between men and women in our society are the primary drawbacks of having non-sexist and feminist men deal with female clients.

A male therapist would perhaps be best for female clients who request a male therapist due to the client's antipathy toward females or an internalized opinion of women's inferiority. Men should not do therapy (1) with an all-female group, (2) with dependent women whose husbands mistreat them, (3) with women who are hostile to men, or (4) with women who relate to men primarily in a seductive manner. It would be preferable for men not to do therapy with women experiencing the crisis of divorce or with extremely dependent, inhibited women who equate femininity with passivity and docility (Rawlings & Carter, 1977).

Feminist therapy is a response of mental health professionals attempting to integrate their feminist beliefs with psychotherapy. Even though the terms may be contradictory (Tennov, 1976)--because the feminist objective is to change societal institutions, while the therapist concentrates on the individual--feminist therapy continues to be utilized. By reviewing the feminist implications for psychotherapy, defining feminist therapy, comparing non-sexist and feminist therapies, and identifying the underlying goals and assumptions of feminist therapy, the lesson has attempted to familiarize participants in a teaching-learning situation with the developing concept of feminist therapy.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography for this lesson. Procure a chalkboard. Review the objectives and learning activities in this lesson and select those most congruent with the goals of your class. Assign student readings.

Activity I: Definition of Terms (Objective 1)

Duplicate Handout for Activity I: "Definition of Terms" (pp. 1/29-1/30) for each participant.

Activity II: If I Were a Client (Objective 1)

1. Duplicate Handout for Activity II: "If I Were a Client" (p. 1/31) for each participant.
2. Prepare a mini-lecture summarizing the research on sex bias in psychotherapeutic practice.

Related Readings:

American Psychological Association Task Force. Report on Psychotherapeutic Practice. American Psychologist, 1975, 30(12), 1169-1175.

Broverman, I. K., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E., Rosenkrantz, P. S., & Vogel, S. R. Sex-role stereotypes and clinical judgments of mental health. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1970, 34, 1-7.

Fabrikant, B. The psychotherapist and the female patient: Perceptions, misperceptions and change. In V. Franks & V. Burtle (Eds.), Women in therapy: New psychotherapies for a changing society. New York: Brunner/Mazel Publishers, 1974.

Holroyd, J. Psychotherapy and women's liberation. The Counseling Psychologist, 1976, 6(2), 22-32.

Marecek, J. & Kravetz, D. Women and mental health: A review of feminist change efforts. Psychiatry, 1977, 40, 323-329.

Rawlings, E. I. & Carter, D. K. Unilateral and reciprocal influence in psychotherapy; also Values and value change in psychotherapy. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publisher, 1977.

Stricker, G. Implications of research for psychotherapeutic treatment of women. American Psychologist, 1977, 32(1), 14.

Westervelt, E. M. Major contributions: A tide in the affairs of women: The psychological impact of feminism on educated women. The Counseling Psychologist, 1973, 3(2), 3-26.

Activity III: Sugar, Spice, Snakes, and Snails (Objective 2)

1. Duplicate Handouts for Activity III-A, B, and C: "Bem Sex-Role Inventory" (BSRI) (pp. 1/33-1/37).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture on psychological androgyny, including any points you wish to add to the learning activity.

Related Readings:

Bem, S. L. Beyond androgyny: Some presumptuous prescriptions for a liberated sexual identity. In C. G. Carney & S. L. McMahon (Eds.), Exploring contemporary male/female roles: A facilitator's guide. LaJolla, California: University Associates, 1977.

Kaplan, A. G. Androgyny as a model of mental health for women. In A. G. Kaplan & J. P. Bean (Eds.), Beyond sex-role stereotypes: Readings toward a psychology of androgyny. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1976.

Marecek, J. Psychological androgyny and positive mental health: A bisocial perspective. In C. Carney & S. L. McMahon (Eds.), Exploring contemporary male/female roles. LaJolla, California: University Associates, 1977.

Activity IV: A Good Woman Should (Objective 3)

Prepare a mini-lecture summarizing the research on common psychological themes resulting from involvement in the women's movement.

Related Readings:

Cherniss, C. Personality and ideology: A personological study of women's liberation. Psychiatry, 1972, 35(2), 109-125.

Holroyd, J. Psychotherapy and women's liberation. The Counseling Psychologist, 1976, 6(2), 22-32.

Mander, A. V. Feminism as therapy. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publishers, 1977.

Mander, A. V. & Rush, A. K. Feminism as therapy. New York: Random House, 1974.

Activity V. Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions (Objective 4)

1. Duplicate Handout for Activity V: "Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions" (p. 1/39).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture which includes any points you wish to add to the learning activity.

Related Readings:

Barrett, C. J., Berg, P. I., Eaton, E. M. & Pomeroy, E. L. Implications of women's liberation for the future of psychotherapy. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1974, 11, 11-15.

Feminist theory. Counseling Psychologist, 1979, 8, 1.

Holroyd, J. Psychotherapy and women's liberation. The Counseling Psychologist, 1976, 6(2), 22-32.

Klein, J. Feminist concepts of therapy outcome. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1976, 13(1), 89.

Lerman, H. What happens in feminist therapy. In S. Cox (Ed.), Female psychology: The emerging self. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1976.

Levin, S. The women's movement and the human potential movement. Voices: Journal of the American Academy of Psychotherapists. 1976, 12(3), 61-62.

Marecek, J. & Kravetz, D. Women and mental health: A review of feminist change efforts. Psychiatry, 1977, 40, 323-329.

Rawlings, E. I. & Carter, D. K. Feminist and non-sexist psychotherapy; also Comparative case analyses of sexist and feminist therapies. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publisher, 1977.

Activity VI: Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies (Objective 4)

Duplicate Handout for Activity VI: "Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies" (p. 1/41).

Related Readings:

Same as Activity V.

Activity VII: If I Were the Therapist (Objective 4)

Duplicate Handout for Activity VII: "If I Were the Therapist: Cases" (pp. 1/43-1/44).

Related Readings:

Same as Activity V.

Activity VIII: Who Can Be a Feminist Therapist? (Objective 5)

Prepare a mini-lecture which summarizes the research on the effect of the sex of the counselor on female clients.

Related Readings:

Aslin, A. L. Feminist and community health center psychotherapists' expectations of mental health for women. Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 1977, 3, 537-544.

Lazarus, A. A. Women in behavior therapy. In V. Franks & V. Burtle (Eds.), Women in therapy: New psychotherapies for a changing society. New York: Brunner/Mazel Publishers, 1974.

Tanny, M. F. & Birk, J. M. Women counselors for women clients? A review of the research. The Counseling Psychologist, 1976, 6(2), 28-32.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Definition of Terms (Objective 1)

The purpose of this activity is to clarify terms which are frequently used throughout the teaching-learning unit.

1. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity I: "Definition of Terms" (pp. 1/29-1/30).
2. Ask participants to read the handout. Discuss each term.

Activity II: If I Were a Client (Objective 1)

The purpose of this activity is to prompt students to think about their own assumptions, values, and biases regarding therapy.

1. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity II: "If I Were a Client" (p. 1/31) and allow enough time for participants to record their responses.
2. Ask class members to share their responses. List answers to each question on the chalkboard. Note similarities and dissimilarities.
3. Use the following questions to stimulate discussion:
    a. Is it possible to conduct value-free therapy? Why or why not?
    b. In our society, in which we hold different expectations for men and women, would you expect these preconceptions to carry over into the therapist-client relationship? Why or why not?
    c. In what ways does race bias affect therapy? Class bias? Sex bias?
    d. What are some of the national trends which indicate that women's roles are changing?
    e. What is the significance of these trends to the traditional socialization of females?
    f. What are some of the differences between feminist ideology and traditional ideology regarding (a) aggressive, (b) competitive, (c) nurturing, and (d) dependent behaviors?
    g. What are some of the differences between feminist ideology and traditional ideology regarding economic achievement; family roles of women; femininity? In what ways are they alike?

   h. What are some contradictions in counseling women which result from conflicting traditional and feminist ideological concepts?
   i. How have feminist researchers influenced traditional theory and research on women and mental health?
   j. How do these changes affect our view of women in the counselor-client relationship?

4. Present the mini-lecture which summarizes the research on sex bias in psychotherapeutic practice.

Activity III: Sugar, Spice, Snakes and Snails (Objective 2)

The purpose of this exercise is to prompt participants to think about their own masculine and feminine modes of behaving.

1. Distribute copies of Handouts for Activity III-A, B, and C: "Bem Sex-Role Inventory" (BSRI) (pp. 1/33-1/37). Ask participants to:
   a. Read Handout III-A (p. 1/33)
   b. Mark Handout III-B (p. 1/35)
   c. Score, using Handout III-C (p. 1/37)

2. Collect each person's feminine and masculine score to establish the median for each. Participants may wish to record these on paper without using their names.

3. Ask the participants to classify themselves according to the medians and the chart on Handout III-C.

4. Form groups of 4-6. Ask all participants to:
   a. Relate three behaviors they display which are typical of their sex role and three behaviors they display which are typical of the other sex role.
   b. React to their classification according to the medians and chart on Handout III-C.
   c. Request feedback, if desired, from other group members on how they would rate a participant on items about which she/he feels unsure.

5. Use the following stimulus questions to begin a discussion on psychological androgyny:
   a. What is psychological androgyny?
   b. How does Bem view masculine and feminine traits?
   c. What do the terms "expressive" and "instrumental" mean?
   d. How does Bem describe an androgynous male? A feminine male? A masculine male?
   e. How does Bem describe an androgynous female? A masculine female? A feminine female?

   - f. How does extreme sex-typing relate to mental health?
   - g. How does Kaplan view psychological pathology?
   - h. Give examples of psychotherapy as a resocialization process.

6. Present a mini-lecture which summarizes any points not covered in the preceding discussion.

Activity IV: A Good Woman Should* (Objective 3)

The purpose of this activity is to explore the ways feminist therapy integrates the stereotyped expectations we hold for males and females to form the expectations we hold for an androgynous person.

1. Form groups of six people.
   - a. Ask one member to begin by relating to another member her/his stereotyped expectations of women. Begin with "A good woman should . . ." Have the recipient express how it feels to try to meet these expectations.
   - b. Ask another member of each group to relate her/his stereotyped expectations of men. Begin with "A good man should . . ." Have the recipient express how it feels to try to meet these expectations.
   - c. Ask the remaining two members of each group to repeat the exercise, using "An androgynous person should . . ." Have the recipient express how it feels to try to meet these expectations.
   - d. Discuss the ways the expectations and feelings were similar or dissimilar.

2. Use the following stimulus questions to begin a discussion of the therapeutic aspects of feminism:
   - a. In what ways does feminist therapy attempt to integrate masculine/feminine? Body/mind? Work/play?
   - b. What is the feminist definition of politics? How does exploring "one's relationship to power" affect therapy?
   - c. How is feminist therapy like traditional therapy? How are the two dissimilar?
   - d. How is feminist therapy like radical therapy? How are the two dissimilar?
   - e. Why is group therapy the preferred mode in feminist therapy?
   - f. Why is feminist therapy referred to as the "missing link" therapy?
   - g. How could women's liberation principles be used as a psychological defense against personal change?

3. Present a lecture summarizing common psychological themes resulting from involvement in the women's movement.

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*Adapted from A.K. Rush, Getting Clear, New York: Random House, 1973.

Activity V: Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions (Objective 4)

The purpose of this activity is to help participants become familiar with non-sexist and feminist therapy assumptions.

1. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity V: "Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Assumptions" (p. 1/39). Ask participants to read it. Discuss and clarify each assumption.

2. Use the following stimulus questions to begin a discussion:
   a. What is the primary difference between non-sexist and feminist therapy?
   b. What does it mean to incorporate a feminist political position?
   c. When is it appropriate for therapists to share their values with clients?
   d. How might you react to a client who is a househusband? A female client who is the primary wage earner in a family? A housewife?
   e. How can you insure that you value a working-class client as much as you value an upper- or middle-class client?
   f. What does it mean for a woman to be psychologically autonomous?

3. Present a mini-lecture which summarizes any points not covered in the preceding discussion.

Activity VI: Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies (Objective 4)

The purpose of this activity is to help participants become familiar with non-sexist and feminist therapy strategies.

1. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity VI: "Non-Sexist and Feminist Therapy Strategies" (p. 1/41). Ask participants to read the handout. Discuss and clarify each strategy.

2. Form groups of four members each. Ask each group to choose one of the following strategies for demonstration to the entire group:
   a. Brainstorm specific ways of sharing the power in the counselor-client relationship. Role play a situation which contrasts a counselor attempting to equalize the power with one in which the therapist exaggerates the power difference.
   b. Role play an individual counseling session in which the therapist attempts to relate her/his values to the client.
   c. Role play a counseling situation in which the client specifies the behavior s/he wants to change and a contract is made between client and counselor for the behavior change.

   d. Brainstorm different ways a counselor can teach a woman to use direct communication. Demonstrate at least two of your ideas.
   e. Demonstrate a group therapy situation in which the personal power of the therapist is expanded to include other group members. The person taking the role of therapist might think of specific ways s/he can encourage group members to participate or redirect questions or statements which indicate s/he is the person of "authority."

3. As each group demonstrates a strategy, summarize the primary points illustrated.

Activity VII: If I Were the Therapist (Objective 4)

The purpose of this exercise is to prompt participants to integrate feminist therapy assumptions and strategies into counseling situations.

1. Form groups of four. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity VII: "If I Were the Therapist: Cases" (p. 43).

2. Ask one member to take the role of therapist and another to take the role of client. Through role playing, compare a traditional approach with a feminist approach to the problem. Have the group members change roles so that each has an opportunity to be "counselor." Ask each group to identify the following for each case:
   a. The problems involved
   b. The underlying sex-role conflict
   c. The goals of therapy
   d. Any suggested readings and other experiences that might be helpful for the client

3. Ask the entire group to discuss each case. Have a spokesperson from each small group report the group's findings regarding the problems involved, the underlying sex-role conflict, the goals of therapy, and any suggested readings and other experiences that might be helpful for the client.

Activity VIII: Who Can Be a Feminist Therapist? (Objective 5)

The purpose of this exercise is to promote discussion and debate on the issue of the qualifications of a feminist therapist.

1. Ask the participants to imagine that they are licensing examiners for certifying feminist therapists. As a group, agree on at least 30 competencies you think a feminist therapist should be able to meet. Categorize the competencies into (1) knowledge; (2) skills; (3) life experiences; and (4) attitude. List the competencies on a chalkboard.

2. Begin a discussion with the following stimulus questions:
   a. Is the sex of the therapist a determining factor in identifying a feminist therapist? Why or why not?
   b. Would you trust a female therapist just because she is female? Why or why not?
   c. What kind of male therapist could be equal to or better than a female therapist?
   d. When might a male therapist be better for a woman client? A female therapist?
   e. What factors other than sex are important in matching client and counselor?
   f. Is a degree from an educational institution important for a feminist therapist? Why or why not?
   g. Is it possible to be a feminist therapist without labeling oneself? What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of doing so?

3. Present a mini-lecture which summarizes the research on the effect of the sex of the counselor on female clients.

Optional Learning Activities

1. As an ongoing project, have students begin a collection of suggested readings for clients. After reading "Feminist Bibliotherapy" in Rawlings and Carter (1977, p. 328), expand the list of books and articles class members would like annotated. Each student can then annotate a given number of references and duplicate the annotations for other class members.

2. Ask each class member to begin her/his individual case study journal regarding female clients. Set aside time in a future class meeting to form small groups to discuss specific cases. Focus particular attention on underlying sex-role conflicts.

3. Ask the participants to list the professional organizations to which they belong. They have them investigate the progress of action the organizations have taken regarding alleviating sex bias.

4. Suggest that participants order a copy of:

   Bloom, S., et al. Off the Couch: A Woman's Guide to Therapy. Goddard-Cambridge Graduate Program in Social Change, 1975.

   Order from State and Mind, Box 89, W. Somerville, MA 02144. Individual copies, $2.25. Make check payable to RT, Inc., P.O. Box 89, Somerville, MA 02144.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Is it possible to conduct value-free therapy? Why or why not?

2. In our society, where we hold different expectations for men and women, would you expect these preconceptions to carry over into the therapist-client relationship?

3. In what ways does race bias affect therapy? Class bias? Sex bias?

4. What are some of the national trends which indicate that women's roles are changing? What is the significance of these trends to the traditional socialization of females?

5. What are some of the differences between feminist ideology and traditional ideology regarding (a) aggressive, (b) competitive, (c) nurturing, and (d) dependent behaviors?

6. What are some of the differences between feminist ideology and traditional ideology regarding economic achievement, family roles of women, and femininity? In what ways are they alike?

7. What are some contradictions in counseling women which result from conflicting traditional and feminist ideological concepts?

8. How have feminist researchers influenced traditional theory and research on women and mental health?

9. How do these changes affect our view of women in the counselor-client relationship?

10. What is psychological androgyny?

11. How does Bem view masculine and feminine traits?

12. What do the terms "expressive" and "instrumental" mean?

13. How does Bem describe an androgynous male? A feminine male? A masculine male?

14. How does Bem describe an androgynous female? A masculine female? A feminine female?

15. How does extreme sex-typing relate to mental health?

16. How does Kaplan view psychological pathology?

17. Give examples of psychotherapy as a resocialization process.

18. In what ways does feminist therapy attempt to integrate masculine/feminine? Body/mind? Work/play?

19. What is the feminist definition of politics? How does exploiting "one's relationship to power" affect therapy?

20. How is feminist therapy like traditional therapy? Unlike?

21. How is feminist therapy like radical therapy? Unlike?

22. Why is group therapy the preferred mode in feminist therapy?

23. Why is feminist therapy referred to as the "missing link" therapy?

24. How could women's liberation principles be used as a psychological defense against personal change?

25. What is the primary difference between non-sexist and feminist therapy?

26. What does it mean to incorporate a feminist political position?

27. When is it appropriate for therapists to share their values with clients?

28. How can you insure that you value a working-class client as much as you value an upper- or middle-class client?

29. What does it mean for a woman to be psychologically autonomous?

30. Is the sex of the therapist a determining factor in identifying a feminist therapist? Why or why not?

31. What factors other than sex are important in matching client and counselor?

32. Is a degree from an educational institution important for a feminist therapist? Why or why not?

33. Is it possible to be a feminist therapist without labeling oneself? What are the advantages and/or disadvantages of doing so?

Handout for Activity I

DEFINITION OF TERMS*

1. Socialization. The learning process through which people acquire socially approved behaviors for their places in society. In American culture there are many socializing institutions, such as the nuclear family, religion, and the educational system.

   Discussion Questions:
   a. When does the socialization begin?
   b. Which institution do you think has the greatest influence on a newborn child and why?

2. Role. A constellation of behaviors associated with a specific position within a culture. Role behavior originates from learned expectations of how people should behave and the consequent rewards from other people. Changing role behavior often breeds conflict between need for approval and fear of loneliness.

   Discussion Questions:
   a. What are the different roles you play?
   b. What expectations have you learned to associate with each role?

3. Sex Role. A particular constellation of behaviors associated with being either male or female. Like all role behavior, male and female sex-role behavior is complementary. In other words, when we talk about woman's role, the complementary man's role is implicit (i.e., what woman isn't, man is). That is why without a men's liberation there can be only a limited women's liberation from ascribed sex roles. As men and women begin to develop an awareness of sex roles, they can begin to focus on self-importance rather than role importance.

   Discussion Questions:
   a. How did you first know that you were a "boy" or a "girl"?
   b. Where did you learn this information?
   c. What behaviors did your family expect of you because of your sex?
   d. What significant event in your childhood made it clear to you that certain behaviors were expected of you because you were a little girl or boy?

4. Sexism. A belief that the human sexes have a distinctive makeup that determines their respective lives. It is a belief in sex roles, and it usually involves the notion that one sex is superior to and has the right to rule or have advantage over the other.

   Discussion Questions:
   a. Can you think of some sexist practices that you observe every day?
   b. Now, can you think of any sexist practices that you engage in every day?

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*From Model Sex-Fair Training Program in Educational Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee. Understanding sex roles and moving beyond: A learning/teaching guide. Newton, Massachusetts: Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center, Education Development Center, 1979.

5. Feminism. A philosophy which stresses the freeing of all people from the restrictions of their culturally defined sex roles and teaches the integration of artificial behavioral polarities imposed by our culture such as work/play and mind/body. It seeks a model of integration and the positive assertion of female energy from within each person.

Discussion Questions:

   a. What is the image of a "feminist" as depicted in the news media?
   b. How do you feel about the word "feminism"?
   c. How do you feel about the term "feminist"?
   d. Can you give specific examples from your own life of the arbitrary separation of work and play--the separation of body and mind?

6. Women's Studies. An effort to make visible and available to students and teachers a body of knowledge that has been denied to American students in the past. This body of knowledge deals not only with the history, psychology, and sociology of women, but also with the politics of being female in a society where white, middle-class, male dominance has been the rule. Women's studies call for the creation of new courses and the revision of existing courses to encourage the elimination of sex-role stereotyping and to introduce new perspectives related to the changing roles of men and women.

Discussion Questions:

   a. What are the available women's studies courses on this campus?
   b. Can you think of other such courses that are needed?

7. Patriarchy. A society in which males dominate the social institutions and in which male norms for behaviors are more highly valued and rewarded than those behaviors traditionally ascribed for females.

Discussion Questions:

   a. What institutions in Western society are patriarchal?
   b. How are these institutions patriarchal?
   c. How do you think that feminism will alleviate the patriarchal structure of society?

Handout for Activity II

IF I WERE A CLIENT

Respond to the following sentence stems:

1. If I were a potential client, I would want a therapist who . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
2. During the first interview, I would ask her/him . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
3. I would not return if s/he answered . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
4. I would return if s/he answered . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
5. During therapy, I would expect her/him to . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
6. I would discontinue therapy if s/he . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
7. As a potential (male/female) client, I would choose a (female/male) therapist because . . .
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.

Handout for Activity III-A

BEM SEX-ROLE INVENTORY (BSRI)*

Sandra Lipstiz Bem

In this inventory, you will be presented with sixty personality characteristics. You are to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, you are to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

Example: ______sly

Mark a 1 if it is never or almost never true that you are sly.
Mark a 2 if it is usually not true that you are sly.
Mark a 3 if it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are sly.
Mark a 4 if it is occasionally true that you are sly.
Mark a 5 if it is often true that you are sly.
Mark a 6 if it is usually true that you are sly.
Mark a 7 if it is always or almost always true that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly," never or almost never true that you are "malicious," always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible," and often true that you are "carefree," you would rate these characteristics as follows:

__3__ Sly
__1__ Malicious
__7__ Irresponsible
__5__ Carefree

Describe yourself according to the following scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never True	Usually Not True	Sometimes but Infrequently True	Occasionally True	Often True	Usually True	Always or Almost Always True

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Handout for Activity III-B*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never True	Usually Not True	Sometimes but Infrequently True	Occasionally True	Often True	Usually True	Always or Almost Always True

____1. Self-reliant
____2. Yielding
____3. Helpful
____4. Defends own beliefs
____5. Cheerful
____6. Moody
____7. Independent
____8. Shy
____9. Conscientious
____10. Athletic
____11. Affectionate
____12. Theatrical
____13. Assertive
____14. Flatterable
____15. Happy
____16. Strong personality
____17. Loyal
____18. Unpredictable
____19. Forceful
____20. Feminine
____21. Reliable
____22. Analytical
____23. Sympathetic
____24. Jealous
____25. Has leadership ability
____26. Sensitive to the needs of others
____27. Truthful
____28. Willing to take risks
____29. Understanding
____30. Secretive
____31. Makes decisions easily
____32. Compassionate
____33. Sincere
____34. Self-sufficient
____35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings
____36. Conceited
____37. Dominant
____38. Soft-spoken
____39. Likable
____40. Masculine
____41. Warm
____42. Solemn
____43. Willing to take a stand
____44. Tender
____45. Friendly
____46. Aggressive
____47. Gullible
____48. Inefficient
____49. Acts as a leader
____50. Childlike
____51. Adaptable
____52. Individualistic
____53. Does not use harsh language
____54. Unsystematic
____55. Competitive
____56. Loves children
____57. Tactful
____58. Ambitious
____59. Gentle
____60. Conventional

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Handout for Activity III-C*

BSRI SCORING AND INTERPRETATION SHEET

The adjectives on the BSRI are arranged as follows:

1. The first adjective and every third one thereafter is masculine.
2. The second adjective and every third one thereafter is feminine.
3. The third adjective and every third one thereafter is neutral.

Instructions:

1. Sum the ratings you assigned to the masculine adjectives (1, 4, 7, 10, etc.) and write that total here:______ Divide by 20 to get an average rating for masculinity:______
2. Sum the ratings you assigned to the feminine adjectives (2, 5, 8, 11, etc.) and write that total here:______ Divide by 20 to get an average rating for femininity:______

Interpretation:

3. Share your scores with others in your group to establish the median scores for each scale. (The median is that score above which 50 percent of the group members scored.)
4. Classify yourself according to the chart below by determining whether you are above or below your group's medians on masculinity and femininity.

Masculinity Median Score______________

		Below the Median	Above the Median
Femininity Median Score __________	Below the Median	Undifferentiated	Masculine
	Above the Median	Feminine	Androgynous

5. Study the terms on the BSRI to explore how you see yourself with regard to your sex-role identity. You may wish to solicit feedback from other group members on whether they would rate you in the same ways.

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Handout for Activity V

NON-SEXIST AND FEMINIST THERAPY ASSUMPTIONS*

Both non-sexist therapy and feminist therapy incorporate some of the same assumptions and strategies. Rawlings and Carter (1977, pp. 51-52) list and discuss these bases of therapy:

1. Therapists are aware of their own values.
2. There are no prescribed sex-role behaviors.
3. Sex-role reversals in life style are not labeled pathological.
4. Marriage is not regarded as a better outcome of therapy for a female than for a male.
5. Females are expected to be as autonomous and assertive as males; males are expected to be as expressive and tender as females.
6. Psychological theories of behavior based on anatomical differences are rejected.

Assumptions of Feminist Therapy*

A summary of the work of Rawlings and Carter (1977, pp. 54-57) indicates that feminist therapy further assumes the following:

1. The inferior status of women is due to their having less political and economic power than men.
2. A working-class client is just as valued as an upper- or middle-class client.
3. The primary source of women's pathology is social, not personal; external, not internal.
4. The focus on environmental stress as a major source of pathology is not used as an avenue of escape from individual responsibility.
5. Opposition to personal adjustment to social conditions; the goal is social and political change.
6. Other women are not the enemy.
7. Men are not the enemy either.
8. Women must be economically and psychologically autonomous.
9. Relationships of friendship, love, and marriage should be equal in personal power.
10. Major differences between "appropriate" sex-role behaviors must disappear.

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*From Rawlings, E. I. & Carter, D. K. Feminist and non-sexist psychotherapy. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality, 1977. Courtesy of Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, Springfield, Illinois.

Handout for Activity VI

NON-SEXIST AND FEMINIST THERAPY STRATEGIES*

Concerning strategies, both non-sexist and feminist therapists:

1. Do not use the power of their position to subtly reinforce or punish clients for exhibiting "appropriate" or "inappropriate" feminine or masculine behaviors.
2. Do not use diagnoses which are based on a client's failure to achieve culturally prescribed sex-role behaviors.
3. Do not use sex-biased testing instruments.

Feminist Therapy Strategies*

Although feminist therapy does not endorse any one set of therapeutic techniques, several strategies are recommended which address the underlying assumptions. The following major strategies are summarized from Rawlings and Carter (1977, pp. 58-63).

1. Counselors make their values explicit before therapy begins or as soon as possible.
2. The personal power between the client and therapist should approach equality.
3. Women are encouraged to be autonomous people.
4. Before therapy begins, the client and therapist enter into a contract specifying the behavior the client wants to change.
5. Sex-role analysis is employed as a treatment technique.
6. Women should be given sufficient personal support and help in analyzing emotional and social barriers and their goals.
7. Women are taught how to use straight communication and how to drop covert, manipulative behavior.
8. Women should have the means or the skills to be financially independent.
9. The therapist usually takes what the client says at face value.
10. The therapist confronts contradictory behavior.
11. The clients are given the tools to be their own therapists.
12. Diagnostic testing is not ordinarily used.
13. If clients are given tests, they are entitled to the results.
14. The clients have access to reading whatever is in their charts, especially material being shared with other agencies or professionals.
15. The therapist does not use diagnostic labels.
16. Feminist therapy with women is done most effectively in groups.
17. Engaging in social action is an essential professional responsibility of therapists.
18. Clients are encouraged to engage in social action on their own behalf.

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*From Rawlings, E. I. & Carter, D. K. Feminist and non-sexist psychotherapy. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.). Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality, 1977. Courtesy of Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, Springfield, Illinois

Handout for Activity VII

IF I WERE THE THERAPIST: CASES

Case I

Sally is a 39-year-old woman who successfully operates her own small business. She has a 3-year-old adopted son and is divorcing for the fifth time. After each divorce she has "fallen in love" immediately and remarried. Since her most recent, year-long separation, she has considered marrying five different men. She is seeking counseling because of concern about her marriage-divorce rate. She is also concerned about the possible adverse influence a man living with her would have on her son as opposed to marrying again right away.

Case II

Judy is a 22-year-old college senior who has begun personal counseling because she has recurring feelings of depression. Recently, after a breakup with a male friend, she decided to live alone for the first time in her life. Her apartment is unsuitable, and she experiences difficulty getting the landlord to make repairs. She thinks her apartment problems are insurmountable, since the only time the landlord treated her with respect was when her male friend accompanied her to complain. She also has doubts concerning her professional competency. Although she is considered a top student in her field and holds a job in addition to attending classes, she is afraid she will never succeed as a professional. She feels like a "fake" when her work is praised.

Case III

Sue is a 26-year-old woman who teaches elementary school and is working toward a master's degree. Writing is a primary interest and she has published several articles. One year ago, she divorced a man who physically abused her; she misses parts of the relationship. She wants to marry again, but has difficulty maintaining a relationship past a few dates. Twice in the last three years she has taken an overdose of drugs. She sought counseling because she is considering dropping out of school, leaving her job, and moving.

Case IV

Carol is a 40-year-old woman who entered the university as a freshman last year. She is married and has three children, the youngest of whom requires special attention due to learning difficulties. Carol worked part time for five years as a real estate salesperson. She wants to pursue a career in clinical psychology; however, her husband has a job which requires moving every three or four years. She is seeking vocational guidance.

Case V

Ann is a 30-year-old professional woman. She divorced about five years ago, after a three-year marriage in which she had one child. After dating several men, she began forming close relationships with women and during the last year she developed an intimate relationship with a woman. She is seeking counseling to decide whether she wants to remain in the relationship with her female friend.

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Appendix A

Journals to Be Reviewed

Feminist Studies
Women's Studies Program
University of Maryland
College Park, MD 20742

The Psychology of Women Quarterly
Human Sciences Press
72 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10011

Sex Roles: A Journal of Research
Plenum Publishing Corporation
227 West 17th Street
New York, NY 10011

Signs
The University of Chicago Press
11030 Langley Avenue
Chicago, IL 60628

Appendix B

UNDERSTANDING SEX ROLES AND MOVING BEYOND: A LEARNING/TEACHING GUIDE*

UNIT I. FORMULA FOR RESTRICTED DEVELOPMENT: SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES IN AMERICA

1. Introduction to Sex-Role Stereotyping
2. Female Sex Roles
3. Male Sex Roles
4. Sex Differences and Androgyny

UNIT II. EXAMINING SEX ROLES ACROSS CULTURES

5. Sex Roles Across Cultures
6. Black Sex Roles in America (Refer to Unit III of The Black Female Experience.)
7. Appalachian Sex Roles (Refer to Unit II of Appalachian Women Experience.)

UNIT III. SEX ROLES IN AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS: GETTING CLEAR AND MOVING ON

8. The Nuclear Family: Marriage and Parenthood
9. Barbie Doll Meets GI Joe: Sex Roles and Sexuality
10. In a Manner of Speaking: Sex Roles in Language
11. Toward Sex Fairness in Education
12. God--the Father or Mother?: Sex Roles in Religion
13. Working Sex Roles Out of the Labor Force
14. Sex Roles and Mental Health Services
15. Ending and Beginning: Strategies for Change

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*From Model Sex-Fair Training Program in Educational Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee. Understanding sex roles and moving beyond: A learning/teaching guide. Newton, Massachusetts: Education Development Center, Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center, 1979.

THE FEMALE EXPERIENCE IN AMERICA: DEVELOPMENT, COUNSELING, AND CAREER ISSUES

A LEARNING/TEACHING GUIDE[*]

UNIT I. FEMALE DEVELOPMENT

1. The Traditional Female Role
2. Women and Achievement
3. Myth America
4. Menstruation and Menopause
5. Pregnancy and Childbirth
6. Female Sexuality and Sexual Preference
7. Theories of Women's Career Development

UNIT II. WOMEN'S CAREER PATTERNS -- LIFE STYLES

8. Women in the Work Force
9. Homemaking as a Career
10. Life-Style Options
11. Lesbian Relationships
12. Women and Children

UNIT III. WOMEN GROWING AND CHANGING: COUNSELING APPROACHES

13. Women in Counseling/Therapy: A Look at Traditional Theory and Practices
14. Career Counseling for Women: Sex Bias in Counselor Behavior and Interest Inventories
15. Feminist Approaches to Counseling and Therapy
16. Maintaining Personal Power: Power Dynamics in Interactions, Assertiveness, C-R, Tokenism

UNIT IV. CRITICAL INCIDENTS IN FEMALE DEVELOPMENT: COUNSELING ISSUES

17. Depression in Middle-Aged Women
18. Crisis in Marriage

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[*] Model Sex-Fair Training Program in Educational Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee. Newton, Mass.: Education Development Center, Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center, 1979.

19. Widowhood
20. Divorce
21. Re-entry Women
22. Rape
23. Battered Women
24. Birth Control
25. Pregnancy Termination
26. Women's Health Issues

THE BLACK FEMALE EXPERIENCE IN AMERICA

A Learning/Teaching Guide*

UNIT I. THE BLACK WOMAN: HERSTORY

1. Black Women in Slavery
2. The Black Woman in the 20th Century
3. Black Women Role Models: Historical and Contemporary

UNIT II: BEING BLACK AND FEMALE: TOWARD HEALTHY DEVELOPMENT

4. Counseling Concerns: On Becoming a Healthy Person
5. Depression and Suicide: Emerging Concerns
6. Hypertension and Cancer
7. Research Issues and Needs: Sexuality, Sex-Role Socialization and Achievement Patterns

UNIT III: RELATIONSHIPS, ROLES AND THE FAMILY LIFE OF BLACK WOMEN

8. Black Sex Roles
9. The Myth of the Black Matriarchy
10. The Black Male
11. Strengths of the Black Family

UNIT IV: BLACK WOMEN: MAINTAINING PERSONAL POWER

12. Black Feminism
13. New Roads to Survival

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*Model Sex-Fair Training Program in Educational Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee. Newton, Mass.: Education Development Center, Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center, 1979.

APPALACHIAN WOMEN

A LEARNING/TEACHING GUIDE*

UNIT I. THE APPALACHIAN WOMAN: AN INTRODUCTION THROUGH POETRY, MUSIC AND PROSE

1. Joys and Struggles of Mountain Women
2. The Appalachian Woman as Depicted in Fiction

UNIT II. SEX ROLES IN APPALACHIA

3. Introduction to Sex Roles in American Society
4. Contemporary Sex Roles in Rural-Agricultural Appalachia
5. Historical Sex Roles in Appalachia

UNIT III. FEMALE ROLE MODELS: HISTORICAL AND CONTEMPORARY

6. Women's History: Lost, Stolen or Strayed
7. Appalachian Women in Traditional Roles
8. Appalachian Women in Non-Traditional Roles

UNIT IV. PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS OF THE FEMALE EXPERIENCE IN APPALACHIA

9. Appalachian Women and Work
10. Health Issues of Appalachian Women
11. Education and Counseling Needs of Appalachian Women
12. Appalachian Women as Political Activists

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*Model Sex-Fair Training Program in Educational Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee. Newton, Mass.: Education Development Center, Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center, 1979.

LESSON 2

ISSUES OF FEMINIST THERAPY

OBJECTIVES

Power

1. To be able to state and discuss at least three major reasons for including power as an issue in feminist therapy.

   Reference: Marecek, 1976.

2. To be able to identify at least six sources illustrating the differential male and female power.

   References: Gillespie, 1976; Henley & Thorne, 1977; Polk, 1976.

3. To be able to discuss the relationship of women to role power and personal power.

   References: Bardwick, 1977; Bunker & Seashore, 1977; Kanter, 1977; Laws, 1975; Staines, Tavris & Jayaratne, 1974.

4. To be able to enumerate and discuss five major issues women face when beginning to exercise role power.

   References: Bardwick, 1977; Bunker & Seashore, 1977; Kanter, 1977.

5. To be able to list and discuss at least two conflicts women experience in asserting personal power and relate those to the socialization processes.

   Reference: Miller, 1976.

6. To be able to discuss counseling strategies which focus on restoring a person's power.

   References: Ball & Wyman, 1978; Gordon & Ball, 1977; Weinhold, 1977.

Anger

1. To be able to enumerate and discuss at least four ways women might displace anger.

   Reference: Mundy, 1975.

2. To be able to state and discuss three major reasons why women have not directly expressed anger.

   Reference: Mueller & Leidig, 1976.

3. To be able to specify five therapy goals of feminist counselors regarding a client's anger.

   Reference: Mueller & Leidig, 1976.

4. To be able to list and discuss five general stages of anger and resolution resulting from a woman's growing awareness of sex-role stereotyping and her powerlessness, or resulting from other traumatic events.

   References: Freiberg & Bridwell, 1976; Heppner & Heppner, 1977; Mueller & Leidig, 1976.

NARRATIVE

The feminist counselor/therapist should be knowledgeable of the literature concerned with the numerous issues and situations of women. Because all the issues cannot be discussed in the context of this lesson, the reader is referred to a feminist discussion of relevant issues found in The Female Experience in America: Development, Counseling, and Career Issues.

Dependence, passivity, helplessness, depression, guilt, sexuality and achievement are all concerns in feminist therapy and are included in The Female Experience teaching-learning manual. Also included are lessons on topics such as life-style options, women in the work force, health and reproductive concerns, body image, parenting, divorce, lesbian issues, battered women, rape, widowhood, minority women, and career development. An outline of topics covered in the manual is included in the appendix to aid the facilitator in selecting topics which coincide with the objectives for her/his class.

Power and anger, vital issues in an examination of feminist therapy, are discussed in this lesson. The powerlessness women experience and the situations women face as role power is exercised are included in the study. Moreover, the recognition of anger is viewed as a necessary component in a woman's ability to regain her power.

Power

A discussion of power is central to feminist therapy. Power, in a positive sense, is viewed as "the capacity to implement" (Miller, 1976, p. 115). This conceptualization connotes power for oneself rather than power over others. However, both power for oneself and power over others are realities which must be examined. Since the "feminist" aspect of feminist therapy is a political term and politics may be broadly defined as "one's relationship to power," a discussion of the issue of power is inherent in examining feminist therapy (Mander & Rush, 1970, p. 51).

The risk of psychological disorder is much greater among powerless people. In this country many minority groups and lower-class people, especially minority and lower-class women, suffer from the effects of powerlessness. Marecek (1976) identified three types of powerlessness: chronic powerlessness produced by social inequities, temporary loss of power resulting from personal catastrophes, and helplessness induced in the behaviorists' laboratory. Furthermore, women have less power than men in personal, economic, social, and political spheres.

Another reason for including power as an issue in feminist therapy is that psychological disorders which exaggerate powerlessness coincide with the stereotyped feminine sex role. Marecek (1976) has concluded, "Women are at heightened risk for disorders marked by symptoms of low self-esteem, self-punishment, passivity, guilt, depression, and social withdrawal. These symptoms could easily lead to helplessness, apathy, and inhibition of activity; such experiences may exacerbate powerlessness" (p. 52).

Polk (1976) pointed to four major areas addressing the power differential between men and women: sex-role socialization, differences between feminine and masculine culture; male-female power relationships, and economic relationships. Henley and Thorne (1977) stated that verbal and nonverbal communication serves to remind women of their inferior status and that women learn to internalize society's definition of females as inferior. Moreover, Gillespie (1976) focused attention on male dominance in marital power.

Role power, traditionally associated with men, is acquired by role or by assuming a position. Personal power, traditionally associated with women, is informal and resides in the person. Women regaining personal power as well as skill power consequently begin to move into legitimate power roles. Moving into roles formerly denied them may engender conflict, because women are moving into areas for which they have no socialized training (Bunker & Seashore, 1977).

Kanter (1977) discussed the issue of power in organizations. Although the majority of organizations include a number of women, they are generally not in positions of power. Interaction between women and men in organizations crosses status lines. Power, leadership, decision making and control are considered male functions; support, nurturance, hostessing and organizational housework are considered female functions. The expectations for each sex affect the behavior of women involved in low status positions as well as those in professional and leadership roles (Kanter, 1977).

Several factors come into play in determining how women behave in organizations (Kanter, 1977). "Many occupations are 'sex-typed'--that is, they are held almost exclusively by members of one sex and come to be defined in ways considered appropriate for that sex" (Kanter, 1977, p. 371). Since sex-typing is linked to opportunities for promotion, it becomes important to discover how this functions. Furthermore, what we know about women's leadership comes from a context in which very few women have power; from settings where a woman is the only female in a group of men; and from studying occupations carrying female sex stereotypes, such as nursing or teaching.

A woman in a role power position among many men faces issues very different from those of a woman in a more evenly balanced or all-female group. Kanter (1977) cites research that indicates men and women may not be equal in a mixed group of peers. Sex also affects the chances of being accepted as a leader. In fact, reactions to women supervisors have historically been negative. Generally, women tend to assume visible leadership positions reluctantly. Also, having low power outside the immediate work group, which is likely for women leaders, may affect the relationship between leader behavior and group satisfaction (Kanter, 1977).

The implications of these factors are significant for female leadership in organizations. Regardless of her competence, a woman will generally be perceived as having limited power, which may interfere with her effective exercise of leadership and necessitate her reliance on a male sponsor.

Other issues resulting from being a lone woman in a male group are isolation and invisibility (Kanter, 1977). Although a lone man in a group of women is likely to be central, a lone woman in a group of men is likely to be isolated and invisible, sometimes treated as trivial. By trying to blend unnoticeably into the predominant male culture and by imposing their own limits on interactions with male peers, lone women may reinforce their own isolation.

To resolve the issues of sexuality, competence, and control that arise when a woman enters a group of men, a woman may adopt one of four stereotypical roles: mother, sex object, pet or "iron maiden" (Kanter, 1977). By adopting such roles, some women may feel more secure, albeit limited in flexible, effective behavior.

In resolving the power issues, Kanter (1977) stated that although many organizations are involved in human relations training, the training is more suitable for men than women. For example, the emphasis placed on learning to express feelings, learning to receive feedback and learning to behave cooperatively is designed to counteract the stereotypic male role. She suggests that human relations for women include learning just the opposite: "the experience of power, task orientation, intellectualizing, behaving 'impersonally,' addressing large groups, learning invulnerability to feedback, and other new experiences in interpersonal behaviors for many women" (Kanter, 1977, p. 383).

One of the ways many women have attempted to gain role power is through close association with men in status positions. Laws (1975) explained this process through a sociological analysis of entrance into role positions in academia. Laws concluded that when a dominant group (in this case, white males) is under pressure to share privilege and power with the deviant group (females), a token-sponsor system is used to control those entering status positions within the dominant group. The woman involved is termed a "double deviant" because she is a member of the deviant group and she devalues her "female" qualities and tries to actualize the qualities of the dominant male group. Although not all double deviants become tokens, all tokens begin as double deviants. Through a series of sponsors, double deviants are trained toward the attributes of the dominant group.

In this token-sponsor system, both token and sponsor share the belief that the woman is unusually competent and is an exception to other women (Laws, 1975). In addition, they both believe that achievement and success are the reward for one's effort. While success results from one's achievement, failure is one's own fault. Furthermore, both believe that membership in the dominant status position is achieved, not ascribed, and the group's high standards justify its exclusivity. The token is then often assigned the task of screening aspirants from the deviant class and sets about eliminating other women candidates. The dominant group can then claim they are "sex-blind." In this manner, the token-sponsor system serves to restrict the entrance of women into the faculty as well as to promote conflict among women already in the organization.

Some women in token positions aspire to one of two primary roles. They may eagerly assume the traditional feminine role of wife and mother as well as pursue a career. When women in token roles are anti-feminist, they may assume the attitude that "If I can make it in a man's world without a whole movement to help me, so can all those other women," and exemplify the Queen Bee syndrome (Staines, Tavris, & Jayaratne, 1974).

When women begin to exercise role power, several issues arise. New behaviors such as assertiveness must be acquired and practiced. As a result, both the woman exhibiting the new behavior and the people to whom she is relating may feel uncomfortable, and both will have to deal with the effects of her new behavior. As sex-role stereotypes are re-examined, women may become aware of collusive actions. Collusion means "that an individual acts in order to fulfill others' expectations rather than from his or her own needs" (Bunker & Seashore, 1977, p. 247). In other words, women's actions conspire with their own internalized sex-role stereotypes.

Issues concerning intimacy and sexuality also may confront women who are exercising role power. The characteristics of a "close relationship" may differ for women and men. A woman may have to learn how to interact with a co-worker who first evaluates her attractiveness and deals with her accordingly, rather than dealing with her based on her competence. Another issue revolves around support groups. Women entering non traditional positions will find few female peers. Organizing support groups both horizontally and vertically within the structural hierarchy will enable women to feel that they are not alone (Bunker & Seashore, 1977).

Women who have regained personal power are often the objects of the jealous and resentful feelings of women who are seeking personal power. Bardwick (1977) discussed the likelihood that women who are personally powerful will be attacked by those who are not powerful. In addition, she considered the conditions under which attack is likely to take place, the forms of attack, and the probable responses of those women who are powerful.

Although a personally powerful, self-actualized woman may serve as a model for other women, she may also be an object of hatred. Such a woman may cause a less powerful woman to realize that she cannot completely attribute her powerlessness to external forces over which she has no control. The less powerful woman may simultaneously experience jealousy as well as a desire for emotional support and affirmation from the stronger woman. The less personally effective woman may see power as being limited. She may think that if one person has power, then she herself is blocked from obtaining it. To further complicate the issue, many personally powerful women may not be aware of the power issue and may therefore be insensitive to the power needs of others.

Rather than expressing the resentment directly, it is more probable that the less effective woman will express an exaggerated admiration for the more powerful woman. A personal attack is more likely to occur when it is easier to personalize the issue. When power is attached to a role, it is more impersonal. Women gaining leadership positions by virtue of their personal style are viewed as being more powerful than those with a limited role or a specific expertise. Bardwick (1977) concludes that "When the role is less clear, or does not specify limitations and obligations, then the powerless become anxious" (p. 330).

Less effective women are more likely to use an overtly fawning, although subtle, form of aggression. Since the stronger woman is responding to the acknowledged needs of the weaker woman, the stronger is likely to act supportively rather than assertively. Thus, the weaker has inhibited the stronger (Bardwick, 1977). In a group lacking defined leadership roles, it becomes possible for the more emotionally demanding woman to dominate. If not confronted, her emotionally dependent behavior becomes the controlling element.

Power is viewed differently, depending upon whether an individual feels personally powerless or powerful. The powerless understand power in more personal terms. To them, the possession of power is equated with an individual's invulnerability and apparent effectiveness. Those who posess personal power think of power in terms of tasks or roles. To these individuals, power implies being able to increase both the quantity and quality of one's responsibilities.

When confronted with overt aggression, the personally powerful woman is likely to respond to the emotional dependence of the weaker woman in a nurturing manner, rather than responding assertively. Bardwick (1977) surmised that the Queen Bee syndrome may result. The followers may make it difficult for the leader to act on her strength because it may be destructive to them. Since they cause her to blunt her behaviors and she doesn't want to be identified with their weakness, the leader must distance herself.

Bardwick (1977) concluded her discussion by suggesting that the strongest women will be those who have personal power, who are confident, who are able to be assertive, who simultaneously convey empathy, warmth and caring, and who are likely to achieve. The threatening qualities of such women can be reduced by specifying and identifying each individual's task(s) which will contribute toward group goals, thus defining the distribution of power. However, working without defined roles may be possible when members of a group are peers in some sense relevant to the group goal or when members have previously established trusting relationships with each other.

Miller (1976) identified two major sources of fear which may inhibit a woman's effectiveness or ability to exercise power. The first is fear of severely negative reactions from men, and the second is the fear of confronting her own ambivalence toward changing her situation. Both fears concur with socialization processes teaching females that the effective use of personal power is wrong and destructive. The process for a woman of moving from a subordinate position to one of greater command necessitates her confronting and expressing her own anger. However, since females have been socialized to believe that it is unfeminine to express anger, it is easier to remain the victim rather than struggle to change.

Anger

Feminists have encouraged women to express the anger they experience as the result of their increasing awareness of sexism and sex-role stereotyping (Kaplow, 1973). More recently, feminist psychologists have suggested sources of anger related to theories of frustration, oppression, deviance, and cognitive dissonance in the experience of women and anger (Cline-Naffziger, 1974). In a review of the research on sex differences in the expression of anger and aggression, Laventure (1976) pointed to several factors which could account for the reported differences. The factors include "(1) parental punishment of aggression in females, (2) differential positive reinforcement of aggression in males and females, (3) anxiety-based inhibition of aggression in females, and (4) societal labeling of female aggression as neurotic" (Laventure, 1976). These factors may inhibit women from openly expressing anger.

Mueller and Leidig (1976) cited three major reasons for women not expressing anger directly: the conditioning women receive, the risk involved since women have traditionally been economically dependent on men, and the fear women may feel toward men because of a size differential. Women's internalized notions of the behaviors appropriate for "nice" women lead to overwhelming fears associated with both demonstrating power and expressing anger. These fears, whether actual or imagined, may cause the expression of anger in many women to become distorted.

The societal sanctions prohibiting women from overtly expressing anger are so pronounced that women find ways of displacing anger to avoid the perceived consequences. Displacement may occur in a number of ways (Mundy, 1975), including experiencing physical disorders or sexual dysfunction; withholding desired qualities necessary to complete a task or displaying helplessness, dependent, or phobic behaviors; or turning the anger inward, resulting in depression.

A feminist therapist who has experienced her own feelings of rage recognizes anger as a legitimate response to socio-cultural conditions (Mueller & Leidig, 1976). In encouraging her/his client to explore anger, the therapist's goals include helping the client recognize her anger and realize that there are valid, external reasons for it. The client may then identify the source of her anger and the specific aspects that make her angry, and validate her expression of anger and gain power over some of the areas of her life about which she feels angry. She may finally "mellow out" after she has resolved her rage (Mueller & Leidig, 1976).

Two patterns of anger in women were documented by Mueller and Leidig (1976). The first is experienced by women who are becoming increasingly aware of sexism and sex-role stereotyping. It is exemplified by the following stages: (1) there is no realization of anger--feelings are expressed indirectly, turned inward, or denied in other ways; (2) a consciousness of exploration starts breaking through--small outbreaks of anger are obvious; (3) rage generalizes to all men--she sees sexism in everything; (4) the client fears offending people or losing a husband or lover--the fear results in a return to "safer" ways of dealing with anger; and (5) "mellowing" phases develop--the client begins to be firm, insisting that others relate to her as an adult with certain skills, aptitudes, and responsibilities. Furthermore, proceeding through the stages of anger and "mellowing out" may not be a continuous or one-time process.

Avery (1977) proposed six developmental stages in the process of a woman's growth toward liberation which coincide with Mueller and Leidig's (1976) conceptualization of the first pattern of anger. The stages are as follows:

> Stage One: Before the Dawn. A woman in this stage is content to live vicariously and feels little need to question her role in life. She passively accepts the traditional definitions of women and their roles.
>
> Stage Two: Epiphany. An event or a series of events occur which are powerful enough to cause the woman to begin questioning existing assumptions about herself and her place in the world. Responses may be shock and denial, withdrawal and depression, or anger and rage. The key to movement into the next stage seems to be anger.
>
> Stage Three: Immersion. While plunging vigorously into the women's movement and feminism, the woman tends to explain most negative experiences by the fact that she is female and oppressed. Her anger and rage are displaced onto those whom she perceives as having played a part in the grand conspiracy (usually men). Support and positive experiences come from contact with other women in a similar experiential stage.

Stage Four: Emergence. Beginning with the realization that while anger is the appropriate response to the epiphany, its expression has limited effects upon those factors which produced a sexist society, the woman may experience a loss of the self identified with traditional sex roles, as well as that part of her being which indulged its anger. In addition, a tremendous fear of separation from the familiar may accompany the sense of loss.

Stage Five: Internalization. As a time of rebirth, descriptive expressions frequently used are struggling, climbing, moving, and feeling taller or stretched. While ending on a note of positive affirmation of self, the woman establishes a flexible truce with the world around her which will allow her energies productive expression. However, the flexible truce is accompanied by a determined readiness to defend her right to responsibility for her own life.

Stage Six: Action. Deep and pervasive commitment to social change is evident. The woman's actions are selected carefully in accord with her unique interests and abilities. In addition, the capacity to relate independently and intimately characterizes women at this stage.

Women who have experienced a traumatic event such as rape or abandonment progress through a second pattern of anger characterized by the following: (1) shock--the woman is either very calm and detached or very verbal and/or "hysterical" immediately after the event; (2) denial--the woman pretends the event did not occur; (3) guilt--the woman believes that she brought the event on herself and internalizes all of the responsibility for it; (4) anger--the woman externalizes some of the responsibility as she expresses anger; and (5) resolution--the woman recognizes that she is in part a victim of external reality but that she does have some internal control over events. As with the previous pattern of anger, a woman may go through these stages more than once.

The task of the counselor and client in a therapy situation may become one of enabling the client to redirect her anger. Several anger-producing situations have been identified (Mueller & Leidig, 1976). They include interpersonal relations, institutional discrimination, physical threat, and being the target for someone's irritation/aggression. Mueller and Leidig (1976) also offer suggestions for different strategies to deal with these different situations.

Assertiveness training is suggested for anger resulting from interpersonal relations and as a social action strategy for anger resulting from institutional discrimination. Possessing increased verbal assertiveness, learning to escape a situation if necessary, learning some form of martial art, and accepting the fact that she cannot foresee every possible contingency are strategies for a woman dealing with anger resulting from physical threat. Suggestions for learning how to "let go" of anger resulting from being a random target for someone's irritation/aggression include rechanneling the irritation, finding some physical form of release, acquiring relaxing conditioned responses, and using fantasy. In addition, Gordon and Ball (1977) listed twenty strategies women in educational administration can use to counteract institutional discrimination.

Although feminist therapy is concerned with multiple issues, this discussion has been confined to power and anger. Reasons for including power as an issue were given, as well as sources of evidence indicating the differential in male and female power. Discussed in this lesson were subjects concerned with the association of women to role power and personal power and the issues arising when women begin to exercise role power. Furthermore, forms of displaced anger in women were summarized and major reasons why women have not directly expressed anger were given. In conclusion, therapy goals and stages of two observed patterns of anger were specified. Even though power and anger in relation to women have been described in this literature, additional research is needed.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography for this lesson. Procure a chalkboard. Review the objectives and learning activities in this lesson and select those most congruent with the goals of your class. Assign student readings.

Activity I: From One-Down to Equal: A Feminist View of Power (Objectives 1-6)

1. Duplicate Handout for Activity I: "From One-Down to Equal: A Feminist View of Power" (p. 1/79) for each participant.
2. Prepare a mini-lecture summarizing any points not covered in the learning activity.

Related Readings:

*Ball, P., & Wyman, E. Battered wives and powerlessness: What can counselors do? Victimology: An International Journal, 1978, 2(3-4), 545-552.

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Activity II: When I Get Angry I . . . (Objectives 1-4)

Prepare a mini-lecture which summarizes any points not covered in the learning activity discussion.

Related Readings:

Freiberg, P. & Bridwell, M. W. An intervention model for rape and unwanted pregnancy. The Counseling Psychologist, 1976, 6(2), 50-52.

Heppner, P. P. & Heppner, M. Rape: Counseling the traumatized victim. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1977, 56(2), 77-80.

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Activity III: I Said . . . S/He Said (Objectives 1-4)

Duplicate Handout for Activity III: "I Said . . . S/He Said" (p. 1/79).

Related Readings:

Same as Activity II.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: From One-Down to Equal: A Feminist View of Power (Objectives 1-6)

The purpose of this activity is to encourage students to think about their own powerlessness and power.

1. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity I: "From One-Down to Equal: A Feminist View of Power" (p. 1/79) and allow enough time for participants to record their responses.
2. Form dyads and ask class members to share their responses with their dyad partner.
3. Re-convene the entire group. Begin a discussion of the exercise with the following lead questions:
    a. What are some behaviors which induce a powerless feeling?
    b. What are some body cues that indicate a powerless feeling?
    c. What is your experience with manipulative behavior? When are you most likely to try to manipulate rather than be direct? How do you feel when you manipulate?
    d. What is your experience with trying to be direct? When is it easiest? Most difficult? How do you feel when being direct?
4. To discuss the readings, use the following lead questions:
    a. What are some reasons for including power as a central issue in feminist therapy?
    b. What are some indications in our society that the male role is more powerful than the female role?
    c. What is role power? What is personal power? Which is more valued in our society?
    d. What are some of the issues women face when they begin exercising role power or legitimate power?
    e. What are some examples of collusive behavior? How do collusive behaviors keep women in sex-role stereotyped positions?
    f. What are some of the fears women have which keep them from exercising power? Do you think the fears are real or imagined?
    g. Describe the token-sponsor system. How does one know if one is being used as a token?
    h. What is the Queen Bee syndrome? Why do you suppose some women hold the attitudes associated with the Queen Bee syndrome?
    i. What are some strategies to combat powerlessness brought about by discrimination in social insitutions?

j. What are some strategies a counselor could employ to attempt to restore a client's power?

5. Present a mini-lecture which covers any topics not included in the preceding discussion.

Activity II: When I Get Angry I . . . (Objectives 1-4)

1. Form dyads for the following three exercises:*
   a. Face your partner. Think of a recent situation in which you were angry. Taking turns and without using words, try to communicate to one another how angry you are. Use facial expressions, gestures, and your body in such a way as to convey angry feelings without talking. Take a few minutes to give each other feedback. Did the other person look extremely angry, controlled, or somewhat angry? Were the person's feelings congruent with his/her nonverbal expressions?
   b. Sit facing your partner. Think of a situation in which you have been angry and get in touch with those feelings. Begin shouting simultaneously at one another for at least two minutes. Be aware of whether or not you begin with a bang and soon fade, or if you begin listening and trying to understand what the other person is shouting. Discuss how you feel.
   c. Sit facing your partner. Repeat to each other these phrases, using direct eye contact and assertive body postures and gestures. Experiment with your voice at different ranges or levels of anger:
      "I do not like it when you ignore me."
      "I am very upset about what you said/did."
      "I want you to stop that."

2. After re-convening the group, use the following stimulus questions to proceed with the exercise:
   a. What were some of the feelings you experienced during the exercise?
   b. Which parts were most difficult? Easiest?
   c. How did you feel after shouting?

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*From Phelps, Stanlee, & Austin, Nancy. The assertive woman. Copyright © 1975, Impact Publishers, San Luis Obispo, California. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

    d. What was the most comfortable way you found to express your anger? What made it comfortable?
    e. When might it be inappropriate to express anger?
    f. What are some usual ways you experience and express your anger?
    g. How is your experience and expression of anger different from that of men you know? Of other women? (Abarbanell & Perl, 1976, p. 34).
    h. What substitutes do you use for expressions of anger?
    i. How do you feel about the substitutions?
    j. Which makes you feel more powerful: being angry, or substituting for anger?
    k. Why do women sometimes have difficulty expressing anger toward men?
    l. What risks are involved for women when they get angry?
    m. Are the risks the same for men?
    n. How does society look upon the angry woman?
    o. What words are used to describe her?
    p. How are the expression of anger and regaining personal power related?

3. Present a mini-lecture which summarizes points you want to add to the preceding discussion.

Activity III: I Said . . . S/He Said (Objectives 1-4)

The purpose of this activity is to give counselors an opportunity to practice responses to a client's reasons for not expressing anger.

1. Form dyads. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity III: "I Said . . . S/He Said" (p. 1/81). Ask dyad partners to take turns playing the roles of counselor and client. Using statements which attempt to restore the client's power, role play short scenes which include each of the following statements:
    a. "It's a waste of time to get angry; it doesn't get anything accomplished."
    b. "I don't know what would happen if I got mad."
    c. "S/he'll fall apart. If I tell her/him how I really feel, s/he won't be able to take it."
    d. "If I'm open about these angry feelings, people will reject me."
    e. "I can't get angry--I'm afraid of what s/he will do in return."
    f. "It just isn't right to get angry."
    g. "When I get angry I start crying and then I get embarrassed."
    h. "It doesn't do any good to tell her/him I'm angry so I just keep it to myself."
2. Re-convene the group. Ask participants to share their responses.

Optional Learning Activities

Use the lesson "Maintaining Personal Power: Power Dynamics in Interactions, Assertiveness, CR and Tokenism" from The Female Experience in America for additional objectives and learning activities.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are some ways women might displace their anger?
2. Why do some women have difficulty expressing anger?
3. What are five therapy goals of feminist counselors regarding a client's anger?
4. How are anger and a woman's growing awareness of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping related?
5. What part might anger play when counseling a woman who has experienced a traumatic event?
6. How are the expression of anger and regaining personal power related?
7. When would it be inappropriate to express anger?
8. What are some reasons for including power as a central issue in feminist therapy?
9. What are some indications in our society that the male role is more powerful than the female role?
10. What is role power? What is personal power? Which is more valued in our society?
11. What are some of the issues women face when they begin exercising role power or legitimate power?
12. What are some examples of collusive behavior? How do collusive behaviors keep women in sex-role stereotyped positions?
13. What are some of the fears women have which keep them from exercising power?
14. Describe the token-sponsor system. How does one know if one is being used as a token?
15. What is the Queen Bee syndrome? Why do you suppose some women hold the attitudes associated with the Queen Bee syndrome?
16. What are some strategies to combat powerlessness brought about by discrimination in social institutions?
17. What are some strategies a counselor could employ to attempt to restore a client's power?

Handout for Activity I

FROM ONE-DOWN TO EQUAL: A FEMINIST VIEW OF POWER

Complete the following statements:

1. I feel powerless when . . .
2. When I feel powerless I . . .
3. When I feel powerless my body . . .
4. I give up my power by . . .
5. I feel powerful when . . .
6. When I feel powerful I . . .
7. When I feel powerful my body . . .
8. I regain my power when I . . .
9. I am (very often/seldom/never) manipulative in getting what I want.
10. When I am manipulative I feel . . .
11. I (very often/seldom/never) make direct statements or directly ask for what I want.
12. It is easiest to make a direct statement or directly ask for what I want when the other person . . .
13. It is most difficult to make a direct statement or directly ask for what I want when the other person . . .
14. I feel ___________ when I make a direct statement or directly ask for what I want.
15. The last time I felt powerless was when . . .
16. In the preceding situation, the other person's behavior was . . .
17. In the preceding situation, my behavior was . . .
18. I could have regained my power in the situation by . . .

Handout for Activity III

"I SAID . . . S/HE SAID"

Using statements which attempt to restore the client's power, role play short scenes which include each of the following statements:

1. "It's a waste of time to get angry; it doesn't get anything accomplished."
2. "I don't know what would happen if I got mad."
3. "S/he'll fall apart. If I tell her/him how I really feel, s/he won't be able to take it.
4. "If I'm open about these angry feelings, people will reject me."
5. "I can't get angry--I'm afraid of what s/he will do in return."
6. "It just isn't right to get angry."
7. "When I get angry I start crying and then I get embarrassed."
8. "It doesn't do any good to tell her/him I'm angry so I just keep it to myself."

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APPENDIX A

THE FEMALE EXPERIENCE IN AMERICA: DEVELOPMENT, COUNSELING, AND CAREER ISSUES

A Learning/Teaching Guide*

UNIT I. FEMALE DEVELOPMENT

1. The Traditional Female Role
2. Women and Achievement
3. Myth America
4. Menstruation and Menopause
5. Pregnancy and Childbirth
6. Female Sexuality and Sexual Preference
7. Theories of Women's Career Development

UNIT II. WOMEN'S CAREER PATTERNS -- LIFE STYLES

8. Women in the Work Force
9. Homemaking as a Career
10. Life-Style Options
11. Lesbian Relationships
12. Women and Children

UNIT III. WOMEN GROWING AND CHANGING: COUNSELING APPROACHES

13. Women in Counseling/Therapy: A Look at Traditional Theory and Practices
14. Career Counseling for Women: Sex Bias in Counselor Behavior and Interest Inventories
15. Feminist Approaches to Counseling and Therapy
16. Maintaining Personal Power: Power Dynamics in Interactions, Assertiveneww, CR, and Tokenism

UNIT IV. CRITICAL INCIDENTS IN FEMALE DEVELOPMENT: COUNSELING ISSUES

17. Depression in Middle-Aged Women
18. Crisis in Marriage
19. Widowhood
20. Divorce
21. Rape
22. Battered Women
23. Birth Control
24. Pregnancy Termination
25. Women's Health Issues

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*From Model Sex-Fair Training Program in Educational Psychology and Guidance, University of Tennessee. The female experience in America: Development, counseling, and career issues: A learning/teaching guide. Newton, Massachusetts: Education Development Center, Women's Educational Equity Act Publishing Center, in press.

APPENDIX B

Survival Dynamics for Women in Educational Administration

R. Susan Gordon and Patricia G. Ball

Much has been written about women in educational administration, but a quick glance around this country will show that, in higher education, women are generally administering women-related programs: affirmative action, women's projects, women's colleges. Little has been written or researched, however, to suggest what institutions of higher education are or should be doing to equip women to move upward into the central administrative structure. The recent proliferation of literature about administrative opportunities for women reflects the problems of socialization and stereotyping, the limited access to education and employment opportunities, the lack of affirmative action by educational institutions and the dearth of female role models for women setting their career goals. Even in the face of the present federal legislation we are painfully aware of what institutions are doing to train, recruit and promote capable women into responsible administrative positions. At best, the answer is "not much" and in most cases, a definite "nothing." Over and over studies are showing that women are not gaining ground but, in fact, losing what little gain they have claimed. Peggy Elder warns that

> Indeed, the recent minor changes may lull women and administrators into a complacency which could stifle further increases and permit some to argue in favor of the status quo (Elder, 1975).

The question then becomes not what are institutions doing for women, but rather what are we as women doing for ourselves and what are we willing to do for each other. Obviously, competence is not enough, but why should that surprise us--it rarely ever is. The "old boy" network has always existed to teach those all-important "informal" ropes of the profession to chosen male proteges: the introductions to professional colleagues, the personal recommendations for fellowships, the intervention for those top job opportunities. Bernice Sandler (1974) suggests that men are often uncomfortable with female students and hence they seldom become proteges. Correspondingly, Judy Long-Laws (1976) espouses the theory that most women who have made it into administration have had male mentors: male colleagues who served to provide those opportunities generally reserved for male proteges.

We, as women in administration, must begin to seek out and provide opportunities for other women, through inservice programming and intern experiences. We must accept the responsibility to recommend and recruit capable women whenever our input is solicited and to speak up with our recommendations when it is not.

Konnilyn Feig says that what we are attempting is the impossible:

> We are trying to change an institution that is in its worst crisis in decades. The characteristics of higher education today must be kept in mind: fear, panic, insecurity . . . . To change that institution, we must plan our strategy around the strongest and most vital motivation present within the walls on the part of most: survival dynamics (Feig. 1973).

Survival dynamics is what we are about, and when we get down to the "nitty gritty," that includes national, regional and local workshops to equip women with the strategies as well as the skills for moving into the administrative mainstream.

A thorough understanding of the nature of discrimination as well as the legal means to combat it are vital tools for women seeking administrative roles. Although considerable progress has been

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Used by permission of the authors. This article appeared in *Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors*, 1977, *40*(2), 46-48.

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made in changing laws, women have not obtained all their legal rights. While numerous laws exist to guarantee these rights including Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964; the 1963 Equal Pay Act; Executive Order 11245, as amended by Executive Order 11375: Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, our problem is educating women and men to the common but subtle aspects of discrimination. They have come to accept discrimination in taxes, credit and wages as well as in employment and educational opportunities.

The idea, for example, that neither women nor men would willingly work under female management is one discriminatory argument used to keep women out of the central administrative hierarchy. Considerable available research suggests that those women and men who have worked for a woman have found the experience to be positive, that women supervisors were inclined to assist both men and women in their efforts to advance, and were more democratic in their administrative practices. This last fact was established in 1966 by a University of Florida Kellogg leadership study team, who found the response so surprising that the researchers carefully checked their work, but the result remained the same (Taylor, 1973).

In defining survival strategies for women in administration, therefore, one goal must be the development of those coping skills which will enable them to respond to dehumanizing behavior in an assertive and intrinsically rewarding manner. This positive, integrative behavior can only emerge as women begin to look within themselves and to other women for support and feedback.

An understanding of the politics of personal power is essential if women are to become effective administrators, to take on the risk, responsibilities and excitement of being autonomous and of having the freedom to shape their individual lives as well as to affect the future of higher education. Recruiting women for high administration positions means changing the status quo, and change is never easy--no less so when it is a challenge to the white, male-dominated power base. Adrienne Rich asserts that the university is above all a hierarchy.

> At the top is a small cluster of highly paid and prestigious persons, chiefly men, whose careers entail the services of a very large base of ill-paid or unpaid persons, chiefly women....In its very structure, then, the university encourages women to continue perceiving themselves as means and not as ends--as indeed their whole socialization has done (Rich, 1975).

Men in administration realize the importance of fiscal control and planning. The fact that women neither realize the importance of working with budget nor seek out budgeting experience is the grown-up version of "girls aren't good at arithmetic." A recent study of women in continuing education administration undertaken by the Association for Continuing Higher Education showed that the majority of women in this area of administration had no responsibility for fiscal planning or personnel supervision (Sisley, 1975).

Women need testing grounds and opportunities to develop their own strategies and skills to administer effectively. *On Campus with Women*, the newsletter of the Project on the Status and Education of Women within the Association of American Colleges, reports that less than five percent of the colleges and universities in the United States are headed by women, and seventy-five percent of those positions which *are* held by women are within small church-related institutions (Long-Laws, 1975). Correspondingly, the University Council for Educational Administration survey revealed that only two percent of the faculty responding to their questionnaire were women. Of these 1,333 professors of educational administration, *only 24 were women* (Campbell & Newell, 1973).

Let us start by providing female mentors. Given the lack of female models in the profession and in the training programs for educational administration, a woman entering higher education generally evaluates her own future in terms of limited ambitions and possibilities. It is the responsibility of those of us who are now on college and university campuses to serve as "mentors," to make sacrifices if necessary to see that opportunities for women begin to become fair, open and equitable--to survive. If that sounds martyrized, the truth is, things are not getting better and we can no longer afford to simply sit back and decry the lack of female colleagues, or even worse allow ourselves to fall into the "Queen Bee" syndrome.

We do not believe that women have to accept the philosophies of administration espoused today by our male-oriented society in order to get ahead. We are all naive, however, if we think we can ever make any headway without our own base of support and power, or insights into and defenses to deal with the arguments and stereotypes which have sought to alienate women from one another.

Twenty Survival Strategies You Can Start Immediately

1. Find out who is responsible for Affirmative Action, EEO and Title IX on your campus. Invite them to lunch or a seminar with other campus women.
2. Enroll in an assertiveness training group or organize one with other administrative and faculty women. Encourage female students and co-workers to participate in assertiveness training and consciousness raising.
3. Keep yourself posted on professional vacancies on your campus; share this information with other women in your institution as well as at other schools.
4. Give your dean or department head a list of the names and addresses of the women's caucuses within your professional associations. Then follow up when vacancies arise to see that he or she uses it.
5. Join professional organizations and actively participate (hold offices, serve on committees, write articles, develop workshops, attend meetings, volunteer!).
6. Join professional organizations whose primary membership is women in administrative roles (such as the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors or the National Council of Administrative Women in Education).
7. Establish ties with community women's organizations (like NOW, AAUW, League of Women Voters, BPW, and women's centers).
8. Involve yourself in your campus Commission for Women (you need not be a member to attend open meetings, request minutes, express an interest, or respond to an issue).
9. Go to your Chancellor, Provost or President and express your desire to serve on university committees and/or special projects.
10. Establish a women's caucus on your campus. Intra-institutional communication is important, but also spend time analyzing the power structure and decision-making practices at your university.
11. Find out who new female staff members are each fall and invite them to a women's caucus gathering.
12. Give credit where credit is due, and give support to women in your institution who are challenging the system (headway they make will be your gain also).
13. Blow your own horn to your supervisors--let them know the worthwhile things you are doing and the positive image you are projecting for your division.
14. Support male colleagues who are attempting to promote opportunities for women.
15. Analyze your own working practices with clerical staff to insure that you are not practicing those things you find dehumanizing in the main administrative structure.
16. Work with the College of Education to provide beneficial practicum experiences for graduate women. (Share strategies as well as experiences, and failures as well as successes.) Be open to learn from your students.
17. Share the power--delegate responsibility and involve people in the decision-making process; keep them informed of all the information that is needed to make a decision.
18. Find out when budget planning begins and ask to be included. Attend open hearings on the budget.
19. Be aware of your usage of the generic "he" and begin to change both your writing and speaking to reflect "she/he."
20. Discuss salaries; ask for a salary review. Open discussion of salaries is one way to determine whether women are being treated equitably.

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APPENDIX C

Battered Wives and Powerlessness: What Can Counselors Do?

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The purpose of this article is to suggest techniques for feminist counseling of battered wives. The first section gives background information on female socialization, explaining why a feminist approach is peculiarly relevant for battered wives. Section two gives a brief overview of feminist therapy and its assumptions. The next section outlines Seligman's theory of learned helplessness as it relates to the situation of battered wives. The final two sections discuss relevant emotional and behavioral issues for counselors of battered wives.

FEMINIST THERAPY

Feminist therapy is a therapeutic approach for the resolution of individual psychological problems which encourages the development of healthy, fully functioning individuals who are not limited, confined, or defined by sex role stereotypes. Mander and Rush (1974) refer to feminist therapy as "the missing link therapy" because it is a synthesis of modified traditional therapies and of the creative developments of the women's movement. Feminist therapy is not a new technique but rather a new orientation and philosophy that determines the nature of the therapeutic relationship.

In feminist therapy the client is viewed as being the expert on her experiences, feelings, and needs. Lerman (1976) states that the assumption of client competence goes hand in hand with the assumption of personal power. She defines the role of the therapist as one which helps the client validate her own self and experiences. Feminist therapy also holds the assumption that "the personal is political." Women have been taught to internalize anger and aggression and they must learn to differentiate between those difficulties for which the individual may be responsible and those problems which are due to sex role stereotyping. For example, it is not uncommon for the battered wife to feel "guilty" for being abused or to blame herself for causing the beating. Feminist therapy would help the client examine her situation from both a personal and environmental perspective and enable her to redirect her anger away from self and into constructive channels of her choice. This ability to separate the internal from the external gives the woman a greater sense of personal power. It also helps her learn that she is not "crazy." The feelings of self-doubt and low self-esteem characteristic of most women have their roots in the ambivalence generated by the socialization process. Living in a battering relationship can only serve to magnify these feelings of powerlessness and worthlessness.

One goal of feminist therapy is teaching women to become self-nurturing and self-loving. Critical to the battered woman's survival is her initiation of self-nurturing acts including: talking to a neighbor, seeking professional help and eventually cancelling the "hitting license" of her spouse. Rawlings and Carter (1976) say that any relationship where the power is unequal is pathological. A relationship in which one spouse feels that physical violence against the other spouse is an

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acceptable way to communicate one's feelings is pathological. Feminist therapy does not support the notion that the nuclear family unit must be maintained at all costs. However, in counseling battered women, the therapist must take precaution not to encourage women to leave their spouses before they are self-sufficient.

Learned Helplessness

Martin Seligman's theory of learned helplessness is one of the most relevant in understanding the situation of battered wives. His empirical studies with animals and humans found that helplessness is learned and that once it is learned it saps the motivation to initiate a response that might alleviate present discomfort:

> When an organism has experienced trauma it cannot control, its motivation to respond in the face of later trauma wanes. Moreover, even if it does respond and the response succeeds in producing relief, it has trouble learning, perceiving, and believing that the response worked. Finally, its emotional balance is disturbed: depression and anxiety, measured in various ways, predominate (Seligman, 1975).

However, Seligman has found that helplessness can be unlearned.

Learned helplessness generalizes across situations. A woman who has learned that she has no control over early life experiences does not expect to have control later in life. She has no experience in controlling major problem situations in her life so she exhibits a passive, if not fatalistic, approach to present and future problems. In the situation of battered wives the uncontrollable trauma may have been overt. In a number of cases there is a history of physical abuse in the battered wife's family. This abuse may have focused on the child herself and/or her mother. In either case the child learned that this situation was not controllable.

In other cases, the battered wife is a victim of over-socialization into a stereotypical feminine role. She has learned to be docile, submissive, humble, ingratiating, non-assertive, dependent, quiet, conforming, and selfless. Her identity is founded on being pleasing to others, being responsible for others, being nurturant to others, but not to herself. Her dilemma has its origin in the passivity and dependence which define the traditional feminine role. Having learned, all her life, to be dependent on others to meet her basic needs, she feels incapable of "making it on her own" even in the face of spending a lifetime with an abusive husband. She has no experience in independent decision-making or in being responsible for herself. Furthermore, because the battered wife has no sense of control, she has no expectation of success if she were to try to take control.

This feeling of helplessness is strengthened by the responses of relatives, neighbors, police, and social service agencies. First, there exists an attitude that the woman is probably getting what she deserves, similar to the attitude concerning rape victims. The woman is often seen as a nagging wife who has driven her husband beyond a reasonable level of tolerance. The community must learn not to assume that the husband has been provoked by the wife. Secondly, there is a general unwillingness among neighbors and the legal profession to interfere in an ongoing marriage. A married woman is not considered to require the same protection due an individual. Within the confines of marriage a woman is expected to work out her problems on her own. There is little realization of the economic and social constraints which hold her in the marriage. Thus many abused wives notice that neighbors go to great lengths to pretend ignorance of her problem. Pizzey (1974) tells of neighbors crossing the street to avoid instances of domestic violence. "Some would even turn up the television to block out the shouts, screams, and sobs coming from next door." Such reactions intensify the victim's sense of isolation and helplessness.

Martin (1975) reports a battered woman's experience with social service agents. At a family guidance agency, she had to defend herself against the insinuation that she wanted to be hit. A doctor asked her what she did to provoke her husband. Another doctor gave her pills to help her relax. A clergyman told her to be more tolerant and understanding. Such treatment causes a woman to question her perception of reality and increases her sense of helplessness.

TREATMENT

The counselor or psychotherapist working with a battered wife may employ a combination of strategies. First, consideration must be given to the crisis aspect of her immediate situation. If she has contacted a competent counselor or therapist, she has taken the initial step necessary to break out of her isolation. She will need continued support to combat the secrecy and isolation which have become part of her life. She may need to be reminded that neither her husband's reputation nor hers is worth her physical and psychological pain. The second crisis consideration entails anticipating the worst and preparing for it. A place of refuge must be found. A list of possibilities should be available for the client if she has no local resources. It is helpful to find a refuge which will also accept children.

Both of these actions begin the task of eliminating the client's learned helplessness. Another strategy would consist of enrolling in a self-defense class or a martial arts training program. It can be a critical factor in combating the victim's feelings of docility and resignation. Lessons in self-defense build strength as well as the self-confidence and self-respect necessary to stand up for one's rights. Martin (1975) describes some necessary components of a self-defense program for battered wives. However, educating battered wives in self-defense is made more difficult because their learned helplessness inhibits assertive behavior.

In light of Seligman's research findings on the effects of learned helplessness, it would appear that one of the major goals of counseling or psychotherapy with a battered wife should be to increase the woman's feeling of being in control of her life. The counselor or therapist must realize that a battered woman will initially demonstrate a lack of motivation and show poor cognitive problem-solving skills. The therapy process must begin with a very directive approach. The counselor or therapist should communicate a feeling of confidence that the client's problems can be positively resolved. This attitude can be helpful in changing client expectations. Directive therapy is to be used with this client only as long as is absolutely necessary. The counselor or therapist must not allow the client to simply shift her dependence from her husband onto them. Wyckoff (1976) refers to this process as playing "rescue." The "rescue" game consists of attempting to save someone who views herself as helpless and powerless. "To rescue someone is oppressive and presumptuous, since it colludes with a person's apathy and sense of impotence. Rather than demanding that a person take power and ask for what she wants, it reinforces her passivity" (Wyckoff, 1976). There is a fine line, in counseling battered wives, between the need to be initially directive and the danger of playing "rescue."

Dialectic Approach to Regaining Control

In psychodynamic terms, control is a necessary condition for the development of identity. Women are not free to develop their sense of identity unless they have the independence to do so. Brashear and Willis (1976) use the term "ownership" to denote the concepts of self-sufficiency and control which lead to identity. They outline several basic areas in which women can begin to assert ownership and control over their lives. Success in these basic areas can develop the confidence necessary to begin tackling major issues such as financial independence and severing relationships.

These basic areas include money, space, time, and talent. Does the wife know how *money* is budgeted in the family--for housing, transportation, insurance, repairs, utilities, entertainment, clothing, food, and medical bills? Can she arrange it in a way most pleasing to her. It may be a place to work or relax. Somehow it should reflect some aspect of her identity.

Can she set aside some *time* during the day when can can do anything she wants? Preferably it should be a time to do something for herself. She can learn that she is capable of giving herself pleasure and meeting her own needs.

What *talents* does she have that she would like to develop? There should be some regularly scheduled activity that is engaged in for her own self-improvement. It is not necessary that the talent be career or job oriented. The important point is that the woman learn she is still able to learn, grow, and develop as an individual.

There are some suggested activities that could be encouraged in a directive manner. Ideally the client would be part of a small group of six to eight women who have experienced battering. The above mentioned activities could be given as homework assignments during one of the initial group meetings.

Emotional Reactions

Resnick (1976) discusses six emotional reactions that are typical of battered wife clients: helplessness, fear, embarrassment, anger, guilt, and insanity.

Helplessness. It is important to help a woman in crisis to identify her feelings of helplessness as a means of re-ordering her chaotic mental state. Another immediate means of re-establishing control would be to have the client seek medical or legal assistance for herself.

Fear is another overwhelming emotion. For a battered wife in a crisis situation it is important, first, to make a realistic assessment of her immediate danger. Resnick (1976) suggests that if the woman is not living with her assailant, pragmatic steps should be suggested such as changing locks on doors, locking windows, etc. If she is living with the assailant, other options should be explored such as temporary alternative housing, or legal measures such as prosecution, divorce, or restraining orders. It is important that the counselor be aware of the difficulties battered wives encounter in the legal and police systems (Eisenberg and Micklow, 1976).

Embarrassment. Many women are embarrassed that they are battered wives. They are ashamed of themselves for putting up with repeated beatings; for having waited too long for husbands to grow out of it; for doubting their ability to be self-supporting. Straus (1977) points out that this feeling of shame and the resulting isolation of the wife adds to the husband's psychological advantage because it insulates him from shame and from criticism of his behavior. The victim may need repeated reminders that she is not a failure as a wife simply because her husband is abusive. She must also remember that she can be proud of herself if she can learn from her mistakes.

Anger. Every victim experiences anger about her situation. Some will be able to express their anger directly, but others will not. Some women feel that they deserve the abuse. Others who have totally internalized the stereotyped feminine role may be out of touch with feelings of anger. In such cases, the anger may be disguised as depression or as various somatic symptoms. The victim should be encouraged to express her anger and this energy into constructive action on her behalf. She may need support to avoid feeling overwhelmed by her anger. She may also need support in realizing that she can be angry and still be feminine (Mundy, 1957).

Guilt often results from a common belief that a woman is beaten because she deserves it. As a result, she may spend years trying to discover what she is doing to provoke abuse. It is important to explore these myths with the client and assure her that the counselor does not believe them.

Insanity. Helplessness and isolation will also foster fears of insanity. The stereotypic female who customarily turns to male authority for validation of her feelings may have an especially difficult time if she can turn only to her assailant. Usually he will not define the situation from a realistic perspective and will discount her feelings. If his definition of the situation is incongruent with her experience, she may easily feel that she is "going crazy." Thus, it is important that the counselor be comfortable with and accepting of all expressions of emotion. As in all counseling it is important never to discount the client's feelings.

Assertiveness Training

Assertiveness training is one of the therapeutic techniques which shows great promise for counseling battered women. Marecek (1975) describes assertiveness training as one of the few therapeutic techniques designed to teach the client how to exercise more power. Women in general benefit from assertiveness training because the socialization process encourages women to be passive and self-denying. Bell (1976) found that increased assertiveness increases self-concept in women. Mueller and Leidig (1975) describe increased verbal assertiveness as a strategy for dealing with physical expressions of anger. Assertiveness training is a combination of cognitive restructuring and behavioral techniques such as modeling, behavior rehearsal, role-playing, coaching, homework, and feedback. These techniques are designed to teach the individual to express her/his thoughts without attacking the other person or denying her/his own feelings. Alberti and Emmons (1974) provide the following definition:

> Assertive behavior is behavior which enables a person to act in her own best interest, to stand up for herself without undue anxiety, to express her honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise her own rights without denying the rights of others.

In assertiveness training for battered women, the counselor would want the client to clarify her rights and develop a personal belief system. These rights may include:

- she has a right *not* to be abused.
- she has a right to anger over past beatings.
- she has a right to choose to change the situation.
- she has a right to freedom from fear of abuse.
- she has a right to request and expect assistance from police or social agencies.

- she has a right to share her feelings and not be isolated from others.
- she has a right to want a better role model of communication for her children.
- she has a right to be treated like an adult.
- she has a right to leave the battering environment.
- she has a right to privacy.
- she has a right to express her own thoughts and feelings.
- she has a right to develop her individual talents and abilities.
- she has a right to legally prosecute the abusing spouse.
- she has a right not to be perfect.

In a group setting the counselor could ask group members to generate "rights" from their individual perspectives. In addition to this type of cognitive restructuring, assertiveness training with battered women would also include teaching the nonverbal and verbal components of assertiveness through role-playing and behavior rehearsal. Each participant would construct a hierarchy of assertive situations from least difficult to most difficult scenes. By increasing her verbal assertiveness, the wife is communicating a new message to her spouse. The new message is that she will no longer tolerate physical displays of aggression and violence. Straus (1977) states that our societal values must change so that the marriage license no longer becomes a hitting license. This assertive message may increase the hostility of the battering spouse. The counselor should explore the realistic consequences of increased assertiveness with the client before she begins a new style of communication.

Despite assertiveness training, individual and group therapy, some battered women will choose to stay in the battering relationship. The counselor should help the client explore the rationale for this decision to determine if the reasons are realistic or mythical. Joining a consciousness-raising group could also provide support for women during and after this difficult decision-making period.

Conclusion

Psychology has done little in the past to train counselors and therapists in the specific counseling needs of battered women. Ultimately the problem of spouse abuse will be alleviated only by changes in societal values. But until such time, counselor training programs should begin to incorporate information on the incidence of violence in the family, the relationship of sex role stereotyping and abusive behaviors, the role of the legal system, the special counseling needs of women, and strategies for decreasing the learned helplessness and sense of powerlessness that battered women experience.

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LESSON 3

WOMEN IN GROUPS

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to state and discuss the primary focus and the therapeutic aspects of feminist consciousness-raising (CR) groups.

   References: Abarbanell & Perl, 1976; Brodsky, 1977; Guzell, 1977; Kirsh, 1974; Kravetz, 1976; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976; Whiteley; 1973.

2. To be able to compare and contrast CR groups with therapy groups.

   References: Abarbanell & Perl, 1976; Brodsky, 1977; Kirsh, 1974; Kravetz, 1976; Whiteley, 1973.

3. To be able to summarize the rules and procedures involved in a CR group.

   References: Abarbanell & Perl, 1976; Learning Activity.

4. To be able to list and discuss at least five advantages for women participating in all-female psychotherapy groups.

   References: Carter, 1977; Halas, 1973; Johnson, 1976; Meador, Soloman & Bowen, 1972.

5. To be able to state and discuss at least five differences in interaction patterns in all-male, all-female and mixed-sex small groups.

   Reference: Aries, 1976.

6. To be able to summarize the rationale underlying problem-solving groups for women.

   References: Wycoff, 1977; 1976.

7. To be able to summarize the procedures of a problem-solving group. Explain at least three tools which aid direct communication.

References: Wycoff, 1977; 1976.

NARRATIVE

As alternatives to established mental health services, many feminists have been involved in the development of self-help, psychotherapy, and problem-solving groups. Self-help groups for women are varied in focus and include conscious-raising (CR) groups, women's counseling centers, abortion referral services, rape crisis centers, and health collectives (Marecek & Kravetz, 1977).

Although information and research regarding self-help groups is limited, Marecek and Kravetz (1977) pointed to four basic differences between self-help groups and established mental health systems. The differences are that self-help groups are usually oriented toward personal growth, rather than toward recovery from illness; power is concentrated among members in the self-help group, not in a therapist or professional leader; the former are often crisis-oriented; and they are informally constituted, grass-roots groups, working outside the mental health establishment. Although the focus of self-help groups may be varied, CR groups will be discussed in the context of this lesson. Many other forms of self-help e.g., the Boston Women's Health Collective Book, are often the eventual outcome of CR groups. Both the primary foci and the therapeutic aspects of consciousness-raising groups will be addressed. The lesson will then expand to include women in therapy groups and problem-solving groups.

Consciousness-Raising Groups

Feminist consciousness raising began to develop in the late 1960's within the organization of New York Radical Women (Hole & Levine, 1971). CR is an educational process used throughout the country in women's groups, with "from the personal to the political" evolving as its main theme (Abarbanell & Perl, 1976; Hole & Levine, 1971). It is a small-group process, whereby members begin by discussing their personal experiences regarding a particular topic such as "masculine/feminine," summarize the common denominators of their experiences and relate these experiences to the social implications. The primary focus of CR is to raise the woman's awareness of her oppression in a sexist society (Abarbanell & Perl, 1976).

Consciousness raising concentrates on common concerns caused by society's ills while pursuing an intent to understand a sexist society, whereas a therapy group concentrates on the individual (Abarbanell & Perl, 1976; Kirsh, 1974; Kravetz, 1976; Whiteley, 1973). Unlike a therapy group, which confrontatively deals with an individual's emotional makeup, CR does not attempt to serve as a personal problem-solving or support group. It seeks to affirm the experience of a female in a sexist society. As a result of increased awareness and affirmation, personal changes in attitudes and behaviors do occur (Abarbanell & Perl, 1976; Brodsky, 1977; Kirsh, 1974; Kravetz, 1976; Whiteley, 1973).

Recent research shows that CR group participation is associated with changes in the self and interpersonal relationships more than with changes in political attitudes (Riger, 1977). Brodsky (1977) summarized a number of favorable personal changes which may occur as a result of a woman's participation in a CR group. They include a heightened self-awareness, an increased ability to elicit and give support, changes in interaction patterns, a sense of closeness or intimacy with other women, development of capabilities in asserting oneself as an individual, and beginning to trust one's own knowledge of a situation. In a review of the literature, Kirsh (1974) pointed to additional changes in personal behavior and attitudes occurring in CR participants. Some possible changes are beginning to value oneself; finding one's anger; decreasing guilt, anger, and depression in the mother-child relationship; increased self-esteem; different feelings about one's body image; and heightened social awareness.

Although many CR groups were formerly leaderless, in keeping with feminist principles of non-authoritarian structure, the author of an article, "The Tyranny of Structurelessness," indicated the lack of necessity for this requirement since a leader eventually emerges in every group (Joreen, 1973). At the present time the National Organization of Women (NOW) endorses CR ground rules which include a trained leader (Abarbanell & Perl, 1976). This change is supported by Bardwick's (1977) argument that a modification of heirarchical leadership roles is needed so that constraints on power are specified and decision making is shared, rather than dispensing with leadership roles.

Another controversial ground rule is that which confines the CR group to one sex or the other. However, research findings indicate greater empathy levels in all-women groups lead by women than in mixed-sex groups (Aries, 1976; Burr, 1974). Brodsky (1977) further justifies the same-sex ground rule in the following statement: "The crucial difference between all-women relationships and those with men as therapists or group members is, in my opinion, primarily that men must overcome too much of the male perspective (socialization) in order to be aware of the ramifications of the social issues concerning women. Also, many women do not trust their knowledge of the situation and are inhibited by men's presence" (Brodsky, 1977, p. 301).

Desired ground rules for CR groups summarized from Abarbanell and Perl (1976) are:

1. Feminist CR is for women only or for men only.
2. A CR series should have a specified time frame of approximately ten weekly meetings.
3. Membership is closed by the third meeting, and members must commit themselves to attending all meetings.
4. Group size should be limited to a range of 6-12 members.
5. Meetings begin and end promptly at an agreed-upon hour.
6. Confidentiality is assured.
7. Close friends, relatives, or lovers may not be in CR together.
8. Confrontation is not allowed.
9. Everyone gives the speaker her undivided attention.
10. Everyone is expected to participate, but no one will be "called on."

Abarbanell and Perl (1976) also described the general framework within which an actual CR group session might proceed. First, the leader calls for "strokes." This encourages each woman to make known to others her praiseworthy actions. The leader will then present the lead question on the topic planned for the session. By going in turns around the circle, every woman has a chance to answer the question. After the first round, the discussion becomes general and ideally should follow a "personal-to-political" course. The topic for the following week is determined at the end of each session. Before the next meeting, the leader should prepare lead questions regarding the selected topic.

Consciousness raising has also been combined with assertiveness training (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976) and used in widows' groups (Barrett, n.d.). Aslin (1976) implied the need for consciousness raising in counseling divorced and widowed women since she viewed socialization for the roles of wife and mother as one of the ways women may be unprepared to be single. When CR is utilized in conjunction with assertiveness training, it is often easier for the participants to act assertively since feelings of inadequacy are reduced when clients become aware that many of their problems result from cultural stereotypes rather than from individual failures (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). Participants may also begin to view themselves, other people, and their relationships differently as a result of CR and be able to recognize and change nonassertive or aggressive behavior.

Barrett (n.d.) compared three types of groups designed to meet the special needs of widows: (1) discussion groups focusing on specific problems of widowhood, (2) confidant groups, and (3) CR groups. The most consistently effective method was the widows' consciousness-raising group.

Although CR groups were intended as self-help rather than therapy groups, many favorable therapeutic outcomes have been documented. As women are encouraged to focus on understanding their personal concerns in view of the social implications in a sexist society, the female experience is affirmed and valued. Even though CR groups have therapeutic aspects, many women continue to want and need a psychotherapy group experience. Therapy groups designed to maximize the personal growth of women have been developed by feminist mental health professionals.

Psychotherapy Groups

In mixed-sex therapy groups, interactions which are based on stereotyped role expectations frequently occur and remain unchallenged (Mintz, 1974). In an effort to provide more facilitative groups for women to explore issues such as self-identity, role conflict, independence, etc., many counselors have designed all-female groups, even though the justification for these groups has been a controversial issue (Halas, 1973). Research indicates that all-female small groups are facilitative particularly in the initial personal development of women (Aries, 1976; Burr, 1974; Johnson, 1976).

Halas (1973) summarized several reasons that same-sex groups may be more facilitative for women. Since women have been socialized to depend on affiliation for their validation, their sense of self-esteem comes from the acceptance and love they feel from others. Therefore, the fear of rejection involved in stepping outside the traditional feminine role and demonstrating assertive, independent behaviors may be great. Also, many women experience self-blame for feelings of isolation, alienation, anger and worthlessness which are difficult to admit. Halas further stated that a sense of trust is developed quickly in women's groups, enabling women to share these feelings in a safe environment.

In counseling divorced women, Carter (1977) identified the achievement of autonomy as one of the primary treatment goals. The attainment of this goal is, in her opinion, facilitated by group counseling since the power of the counselor is minimized. Furthermore, peers tend to exert more influence on the woman to acknowledge what is right and fair for her. In an all-female group, women learn new ways of relating to other women and find they have problems in common with other women. Carter believes that female counselors can serve as role models. Men should not serve as counselors to an all-female group, since this situation reinforces dependency on a male, inhibits women from looking to themselves for answers and engenders competition among women for the attention of a male (Carter, 1977).

Other advantages are pointed to as a result of experience in all-female groups (Meador, Solomon, & Bowen, 1972). Women in all-female encounter groups are observed to have more freedom to examine themselves in terms of their role expectations and their relationships to other women (Meador et al., 1972). These authors further stated that women are encouraged to examine their relationships outside the group. When competition for male attention is absent, the authors think that women are more sensitive to each other as human beings. In the presence of other women, they are freer to examine their feelings about sexuality and body image, as well as negative attitudes toward pregnancy and motherhood. Women also find some consolation in discovering other people with similar concerns and find greater opportunity in all-female encounter groups to develop female friendships (Meador et al., 1972). Research on interaction patterns in small groups (Aries, 1976) and on feminist therapy groups (Johnson, 1976) supports the observations of Halas and Meador, Solomon, and Bowen. Furthermore, Burr (1974) found that women in all-female growth groups participate in self-disclosure more than women in mixed-sex groups.

In a 1976 study, Aries found that mixed-sex group participants exhibit behaviors appropriate to meet social sex-role pressures in a particular situation, rather than displaying their entire repertoire of behaviors. Caution is advised in generalizing these findings to the therapy group setting, since Aries (1976) worked with time-limited discussion groups rather than with therapy groups which span longer time periods. Her findings, however, do provide group therapists with a description of the typical situation in the beginning phase of therapy (Gould, 1977).

Areus' (1976) findings indicate that in all-male groups the same males were the most active speakers in every session, whereas in all-female groups there was greater flexibility in the active speakers taking the leadership role. Furthermore, significantly more speakers addressed the group as a whole in the all-male groups than in the all-female groups. Although the female style of addressing individuals remained constant in both female and mixed groups, males addressed significantly more of their communications to the group as a whole in all-male groups than they did when interacting with women. Moreover, Aries found that in mixed groups males usually dominated the interaction frequency. When more females initiated discussion to equalize the amount of interaction, greater participation did increase male communication with women, but it did not increase interaction between women (Aries, 1976).

Regarding statement content, Aries (1976) found that females shared a great deal of information about themselves in all-female groups, whereas males in all-male groups shared very little about themselves, their feelings, or their relationships. In mixed groups, males developed a more personal style, with increased one-to-one interaction, greater self-relevation, and decreased aggressive, competitive behavior. The researcher found that females in mixed groups talked less about home and family, spoke less often--initiating only 34 percent of the total interaction--and spoke less than men about achievement, power, or other traditional male concerns. Aries concludes that men benefit more than women from the mixed-group setting since it allows men more variation in their interpersonal style, while for women it means more restriction.

Another study supporting the facilitative nature of all-female therapy groups was done by Johnson (1976) at the Feminist Therapy Collective of Philadelphia. Since the collective is an attempt to integrate feminism and psychotherapy, group therapy is the preferred mode. Group therapy differs from CR groups in that the resolution of personal problems is emphasized. Johnson compared female clients who participated in the collective psychotherapy group with clients participating in psychodynamically oriented individual outpatient psychotherapy. Groups were divided according to four criteria: (1) collective versus traditional setting, (2) group versus individual therapy, (3) female versus male therapist, and (4) length of therapy.

Johnson found that both groups described similar problems when they began therapy, had similar levels of distress at that time, and demonstrated similar post-therapy improvement and satisfaction with the therapy experience. Furthermore, the findings suggest that short-term therapy in the collective setting was an effective as lengthier individual therapy. Although further research is needed, Johnson's study suggests that feminist therapists can be viewed as desirable and powerful models. In addition, they may be viewed as being more empathic because they are women.

To facilitate the personal growth of women, all-female psychotherapy groups have been developed. The group setting has proven to be more productive on a short-term basis than individual therapy has. Also, an all-female group may be more advantageous for women seeking psychotherapy, since the risk of rejection is high for women when they are learning to display assertive, independent behaviors, and since women tend to exhibit behaviors appropriate to the traditional feminine sex role in a mixed group. Alternatives to traditional psychotherapy groups are continually under development.

Problem-Solving Groups

To aid women in incorporating a feminist consciousness into their lives, Wycoff (1976, 1977) applied radical psychiatric theory as well as feminist principles in her development of women's problem-solving groups. The following summary of the rationale for and procedure of a problem-solving group is taken from her work:

> Radical psychiatrists define psychiatry as the art of soul-healing. Basic assumptions of the radical psychiatrist include: (1) a belief that people are good and if left alone in a nurturing environment they will develop in a positive way, (2) a

belief that people feel badly because they are oppressed by forces outside themselves, (3) a belief that the art of soul-healing is a political activity--"politics" is used as having to do with power, (4) a desire to make psychiatry available to anyone who wants it, (5) a desire to eliminate professionalism and elite power structures, and (6) a strong opposition to the use of the medical model.

Radical psychiatrists believe that alienation occurs when people who feel badly come to believe that something is basically wrong with them and with life. Moreover, the person is lied to about being oppressed. The process of liberation then becomes the antithesis of the formula "Oppression + Lies + Isolation = Alienation" (Wycoff, 1977, p. 15). Action is the key ingredient in liberation and requires a real step in promoting desired changes. Awareness is another factor in the process of liberation and requires an understanding of the need for action, as well as for information explaining oppression. The third factor is contact, which means support and protection while changes are being made. The formula then becomes "Action + Awareness + Contact = Liberation" (Wycoff, 1977, p. 16).

The women's problem-solving group theoretical framework developed by Wycoff is based on the radical psychiatry liberation equation given above. While incorporating intellectual and intuitive understanding as action aspects, Wycoff concentrates on three levels of awareness that women need to reclaim in order to attain well-being, and mental, emotional, and physical awareness. Mental awareness involves focusing on life plans, scripts, and messages one receives. Emotional awareness focuses on one's range of feelings, and physical awareness involves one's conscious experience of bodily sensations. Intertwined throughout is an examination of external and internal sexist attitudes which interfere with awareness. Integration of mental, emotional, and physical awareness is another significant factor.

The contact portion of the liberation equation deals with the relationship with oneself, with others, and with the world. Wycoff believes that these three spheres need to be integrated and are of equal importance for women. Equalizing their importance may require drastic change on the part of many women, since females in our society are taught to believe that interpersonal relations are the most important and that they have little influence regarding concerns in the world which affect everyone.

The group model Wycoff developed involves an ongoing structure. Since cooperation provides the foundation for working together, the ability of each group member to know and state what she wants is of paramount importance. An agenda is made at the beginning of each meeting, with each member stating what she wants to get done. A contract--a clear, simple, positive statement about what the group member wishes to accomplish while she is in the group--is an important tool in the group model. After a contract is made, group members then address those issues the woman considers of highest priority. Each member tries to get a clear picture of the obstacles. Strategies for change are developed and carried out through homework.

In addition to contracting, homework, and giving and asking for feedback, other tools are used to facilitate direct communication. Reporting "held resentments," sharing paranoid fantasies, and refraining from "rescue" are three important tools. By reporting "held resentment" women learn to communicate angry or hurt feelings without "blowing up" at another person. At the beginning of a group meeting, a person who was unhappy about something said or done at an earlier time may ask the person involved whether she is willing to hear the resentment. The other person may either refuse or be willing to hear. The resentment is then expressed in the following form: "I was angry when you asked me to finish since my time was up." The person listening does not respond, although if the matter requires further discussion it may be done later in the group meeting. The expression of a paranoid fantasy is structured in the same manner.

Since all members do an equal share of the group work, no one attempts to "rescue." "Rescue" means doing more for someone than she is willing to do for herself. It can also mean doing something one does not want to do so the other person will feel good. Expressing held resentments, sharing paranoid fantasies and refraining from rescue are only a few of the various techniques utilized in women's problem-solving groups.

Self-help groups and innovative psychotherapy groups were developed as alternatives to the services provided by established mental health institutions. Although self-help groups were not intended to replace therapy groups, therapeutic aspects have developed. Therapy groups which deal with both personal and social factors continue to be needed. Although further research is indicated, it appears that the personal growth of women is facilitated by all-female groups. More extensive utilization of unique therapy approaches such as the one developed by Wycoff is suggested.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography for this lesson. Procure a chalkboard. Review the objectives and learning activities in this lesson and select those most congruent with the goals of your class. Assign student readings.

Activity I: Feminist Consciousness Raising: Rules and Procedures (Objectives 1-3)

1. Duplicate Handout for Activity I: "Feminist Consciousness Raising: Rules and Procedures" (p. 1/119).

2. Ask the participants to select a topic for discussion in a CR group in which they will participate.

Related Readings:

Abarbanell, G. & Perl, H. Guidelines to feminist consciousness raising. Los Angeles: National Task Force on Consciousness Raising of the National Organization for Women, 1976.

Brodsky, A. M. Therapeutic aspects of consciousness-raising groups. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publisher, 1977.

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Activity II: Women and Men in Groups (Objectives 4-5)

1. Duplicate Handouts for Activity II-A & B (pp. 1/121-1/123).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture which summarizes the findings of Aries (1976).

Related Readings:

Aries, B. Interaction pattern and themes of male, female and mixed groups. Small Group Behavior, 1976, 7, 7-18.

Carter, D. K. Counseling divorced women. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1977, 55(9), 537.

Halas, C. All-woman groups: A view from inside. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 52(2), 91.

Johnson, M. An approach to feminist therapy. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1976, 13(1), 72-76.

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Activity III: Problem-Solving Groups (Objectives 6-7)

Ask a group of students to prepare a demonstration of a problem-solving group.

Related Readings:

Wyckoff, H. Equalizing power in groups. In H. Wyckoff (Ed.), Love, therapy and politics. New York: Grove Press, 1976.

Wyckoff, H. Problem-solving groups for women. In H. Wyckoff (Ed.), Love, therapy and politics. New York: Grove Press, 1976.

Wyckoff, H. Radical psychiatry techniques for solving women's problems in groups. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publishers, 1977.

Wyckoff, H. Solving women's problems. New York: Grove Press, 1977.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Feminist Consciousness Raising: Rules and Procedures (Objectives 1-3)

The purpose of this exercise is to give the participants experience with a feminist consciousness-raising group.

1. Form a circle, with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity I: "Feminist Consciousness Raising: Rules and Procedures" (p. 1/119). Briefly discuss the ground rules and procedures.
2. As a group, select one of the following topics for discussion:
    a. Masculine/Feminine
    b. Do Women Like Women?
    c. Women and Obsolescence
    d. Lesbianism and Feminism
    e. Sexual Oppression
    f. Female Sexuality
    g. Rape
    h. Mothers/Daughters
    i. Committed Relationships and Feminism
    j. Women and Economics
    k. Stirrup-Table Blues and Where to Go from There
3. Begin a discussion of the exercise with the following lead questions:
    a. What are some of your reactions to the CR group?
    b. What are some advantages to having a CR group leader? Disadvantages?
    c. How is a CR group like a therapy group? Unlike?
    d. What are some therapeutic aspects of the CR group?
    e. How are the issues in women's CR alike or different from those of men's CR? Why are they alike or different?

Activity II: Women and Men in Groups (Objectives 4-5)

The purpose of this exercise is to increase the participants' awareness of the different ways men and women function in groups.

1. During the week preceding the discussion of women in groups, ask the participants to observe a group of people who are interacting. Ask them to record the following information:
    a. the type of group (growth, discussion, therapy, etc.)
    b. the numbers of men and women

    c. the initiator of the interaction
    d. the rank order of those who interact
    e. to whom the interaction is addressed--an individual (I) or the entire group (G)
    f. the content of the interaction--personal (P) or impersonal (IP)

Ask them to record each time a group member speaks; record again for each additional 15 seconds a speaker continues. Use Handout for Activity II-A: "Women and Men in Groups" (p. 1/121) to gather the data.

2. Use Handout for Activity II-B: "Data Summary" (p. 1/123) to compare the data. To begin the discussion, ask the following stimulus questions:
    a. In groups having approximately equal numbers of men and women, who initiated the interaction--male or female?
    b. Who spoke most frequently--male or female?
    c. Who addressed the entire group the most--male or female?
    d. Who had the most personal content? Impersonal?

   Ask the same questions for groups having primarily male members and then for those having primarily female members.

3. Present a mini-lecture summarizing the findings of Aries (1976). Focus on the similarities and differences in the data collected by Aries and the data collected by class members.

4. Conclude the discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. What are the advantages of women participating in all-female groups?
    b. What advantages and disadvantages exist when women are in groups with female leaders? Male leaders?
    c. When might it be advantageous for women to be in a therapy group with males and females?

Activity III: Problem-Solving Groups (Objectives 6-7)

The purpose of this exercise is to give the participants experience with a problem-solving group.

1. Ask a group of students to demonstrate a problem-solving group through role playing (Wycoff, 1977). Include examples of contracting, stroking, and expressing held resentments and paranoias, and having at least one person discussing a problem.

2. After the demonstration, use the following lead questions for an entire group discussion:
    a. How is a problem-solving group like other therapy groups? CR groups?

b. How is it different?
c. What are the advantages and disadvantages of stroking? Contracting? Expressing held resentments and paranoias? Homework?
d. Do you think a mixed-sex problem-solving group would be advantageous for women? Why or why not?
e. How do you think a problem-solving group for men would be different than one for women? Alike?

Optional Learning Activities

1. Ask participants to order a copy of the following: Abarbanell, G. & Perl, H. Guidelines to Feminist Consciousness Raising. Los Angeles: National Task Force on Consciousness Raising of the National Organization for Women, 1976. Order from: 1835 South Bentley, Los Angeles, California 90025. Cost: $5.00.

2. Ask students to select a topic for a CR group and to prepare the political points to be made. Formulate 10 lead questions for a discussion regarding the topic. Use "Topic Guides" in Abarbanell and Perl (1976, pp. 25-35) as a resource.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the guidelines for CR groups recommended by the National Organization for Women?
2. What are some advantages to having a CR group leader? Disadvantages?
3. How is a CR group like a therapy group? Unlike?
4. What are some therapeutic aspects of the CR group?
5. How are the issues in women's CR alike or different from those in men's CR? Why are they alike or different?
6. What are the advantages of women participating in all-female groups?
7. What advantages and disadvantages exist when women are in groups with female leaders? Male leaders?
8. When might it be advantageous for women to be in a therapy group with males and females?
9. How is a problem-solving group like other therapy groups? CR groups? How is it different?
10. What are the advantages and disadvantages of stroking? Contracting? Expressing held resentments and paranoias? Homework?
11. Do you think a mixed-sex problem-solving group would be advantageous for women? Why or why not?
12. How do you think a problem-solving group for men would be different than one for women? Alike?

Handout for Activity I

FEMINIST CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING: RULES AND PROCEDURES*

Desirable ground rules for CR groups summarized from Abarbanell and Perl (1976) are:

1. Feminist CR is for women only or for men only.
2. A CR series should have a specified time frame of approximately ten weekly meetings.
3. Membership is closed by the third meeting, and members must commit themselves to attending all meetings.
4. Group size should be limited to a range of 6-12 members.
5. Meetings begin and end promptly at an agreed-upon hour.
6. Confidentiality is assured.
7. Close friends, relatives, or lovers may not be in CR together.
8. Confrontation is not allowed.
9. Everyone gives the speaker her undivided attention.
10. Everyone is expected to participate, but no one will be "called on."

Abarbanell and Perl also described the general framework within which an actual CR group session might proceed. First, the leader calls for "strokes." This encourages each woman to make known to others her praiseworthy actions. The leader will then present the lead question on the topic planned for the session. By going in turns around the circle, every woman has a chance to answer the question. After the first round, the discussion becomes general and ideally should follow a "personal-to-political" course. The topic for the following week is determined at the end of each session. Before the next meeting, the leader should prepare lead questions regarding the selected topic.

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*From Abarbanell, G. & Perl, H. Guideline to feminist consciousness raising. Los Angeles: National Task Force on Consciousness Raising of the National Organization for Women, 1976.

Handout for Activity II-A

WOMEN AND MEN IN GROUPS

Type of group____________________ Number ____________________

Division by Sex: __________________male __________________female

Sex of Group Members____

GROUP MEETING		
Rank Order (by sex)	Addressed to: G or I	Content: P or IP
CPC ♀	G	P
LW ♂	I	IP

Handout for Activity II-B

DATA SUMMARY

	Approximately equal number Female	 Male	Primarily Male	Primarily Female
Interaction Initiator				
Most Frequent Speaker				
Interaction Directed to Group (G) or Individual (I)				
Content Personal (P) or Impersonal (IP)				

1/123

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LESSON 4

SPECIAL APPLICATIONS OF MODERN THERAPEUTIC APPROACHES

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to summarize sex-role analysis in Transactional Analysis (TA) terminology.

   References: Wyckoff, 1976, 1977.

2. To be able to identify at least four stereotyped women's scripts.

   References: Jongeward & Scott, 1976; Wyckoff, 1977.

3. To be able to list and discuss at least five ways Gestalt Therapy can be an advantageous therapy for women.

   References: Brien & Sheldon, 1977; Fagan & Shepherd, 1970; Polster, 1974.

4. To be able to discuss four ways Behavioral Therapy can be applied to the unique counseling concerns of women.

   References: Cormier & Cormier, 1975; Fodor, 1974; Tennov, 1978.

5. To be able to explain three ways a feminist therapist could use Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) with women.

   References: Beck & Greenberg, 1974; Ellis, 1973, 1974; Oliver, 1976.

NARRATIVE

Modern theories and techniques can be utilized either as a means of enabling a woman to overcome stereotypic, inefficient behavior patterns or as a means of encouraging a woman to adjust to her life situation. The direction of therapy is largely determined by the philosophical orientation of the facilitator. Both the personal and professional values of the counselor influence change in the client (Rawlings & Carter, 1977). Furthermore, the application of therapy is restricted by the skills, values, and specific limitations of the person administering the procedure (Lazarus, 1974). The approaches discussed in this lesson--Transactional Analysis, Gestalt, Behavioral, and Rational Emotive Therapies--can be utilized successfully with female clients in combination with the therapist's knowledge of counseling and psychotherapy concerns unique to women. The following discussion includes examples of the uses of modern therapeutic approaches with women. It is not intended as a comprehensive summary.

Transactional Analysis

Women's issues, both general and specific, have been addressed in the Transactional Analysis (TA) literature in recent years (Jongeward & Scott, 1976; Wyckoff, 1977, 1976, 1971). A variety of topics have been addressed, including sex-role analysis, women's scripts, "Divorce Ceremonies," "TA and Sex Therapy for Women," "Women as Professionals," and many more (Feigenbaum, 1977; Jongeward & Scott, 1976; Kerr, 1976; Vago, 1977; Wyckoff, 1977, 1976, 1971). Sex-role analysis in TA terminology and women's scripts are two basic topics which will be discussed in the context of this lesson.

Eric Berne developed a specific set of tools which are generally referred to as Transactional Analysis. They are:

1. Structural Analysis--the analysis of the person into ego states: the Parent, Adult, and Child.
2. Transactional Analysis--the sequential analysis of transactions between people which includes the concepts of strokes as well as various methods of structuring time.
3. Script Analysis--the analysis of people's life plans (Steiner, 1976).

Structural analysis, the aspect of TA which explains human behavior in terms of three ego states--Parent, Adult, and Child--is utilized in sex-role analysis. In the Parent state, people know exactly what is right and wrong, and how things and people "should" be.[1] In the Adult state, people rationally assimilate and process information to be used in decision making and predictions. When people are in their Child state, they can play, and be free, creative and spontaneous; they also experience the range of emotions in this state.

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[1] The summary of structural analysis and sex-role analysis was done by Elizabeth A. Wyman from the work of H. Wyckoff (1976).

For the purpose of analyzing differences in ego state development between the sexes, it is important to have a more detailed understanding of the three components of the Child state: the Pig Parent, Little Professor, and the Natural Child. The Pig Parent, which is the Parent in the Child, is an immature, childlike parent whose nurturing is conditional and unreliable. This Pig Parent enforces the script programming with messages like, "Big boys don't cry," or, "Nothing is as ugly as an angry woman."

The Adult in the Child is called the Little Professor or the Intuitive Child. This ego state operates intuitively and instinctively. The Child in the Child is called the Natural Child. This part of a person is most in touch with feeling and knows what feels good or bad at any particular time.

Men and women have been trained to develop certain parts of their personalities and to suppress other parts. This training, which is sometimes called sex-role stereotyping, is termed "banal scripting" in TA language (Wyckoff, 1972, 1976). Banal scripting results in a predetermined, stilted way of behaving in which spontaneity disappears. People playing out banal scripts accept a boring half-life as all they can ever expect.

Men are pressured to develop their Adult. Being a "real man" means one should be good at math, and be logical, rational, and scientific. A "real man" does not develop a Nurturing Parent. A young boy should not be too in touch with his Natural Child. Caring for others and the fear of being hurt would interfere with endeavors such as football competition.

The intuition of the Little Professor is not scientific or logical; therefore, it is unacceptable in the male role. The Pig Parent is the best-developed portion of the Child ego state in men. Its function is to force men to stay in their Adult state and keep out of touch with nurturing, intuitive, or fun-loving feelings.

A woman is trained to develop a strong Nurturing Parent. She is not conditioned to have a strong Adult. But she must have a strong Pig Parent to remind her what her script should be and what she should do to be a good woman. Since a woman is taught to be sensitive and nurturing toward other people, she usually has a well-developed Professor which enables her to be intuitive. Therefore, she can take care of the wishes and needs of others without their having to ask. Her Natural Child, which would enable her to be aware of her own needs, is not well developed.

Women's Scripts. Women's script analysis, the analysis of life plans, is utilized to explain ways women have responded to socialization processes and cultural forces. Their response has been to form patterns of behavior appropriate to their perception of the stereotyped female sex role. It is possible for women to have a blend of two or three scripts (Wyckoff, 1977). Wyckoff (1977) discusses six scripts. They are: (1) Mother Hubbard--a woman playing out this script spends her life nurturing and taking care of everyone but herself, (2) Plastic Woman--a woman with this script tries to obtain strokes by dressing in bright jewelry, platform heels, foxy clothes, and dramatic makeup, (3) The Woman Behind the Man--a woman who puts all her talent and drive into supporting her husband, although he may be less talented than she, (4) Poor Little Me--a woman who spends her life being a victim looking for a rescuer, (5) Creeping Beauty--a woman who has the standard attributes of a so-called "media beauty," but who doesn't feel very good about herself, and (6) Nurse--a woman whose caring has become oppressive to her because of her professional rescuer role.

Additional scripts are described by Jongeward and Scott (1976). A woman absorbed in a Cinderella script learns to accept suffering while doing menial chores as she looks for a man to rescue her. Believing in the magic of the love of a good woman, Beauty (and the Beast) learns to feel self-righteous and virtuous in comparison to men. Lady Atlas learns to carry a huge load of miseries and to martyr herself. Little Red Riding Hood learns to entice men and then rebuke them.

Sex-role analysis and women's scripting are examples of ways TA can assist women in conceptualizing, analyzing and understanding their behavior in relation to a society which encourages women to adopt stereotyped sex-role characteristics. The therapist's knowledge of women's unique counseling concerns and their sex-role socialization is imperative in utilizing TA with female clients.

Whereas TA may be viewed as a rational method for analyzing and understanding behavior, Gestalt Therapy can be viewed as a useful method for developing awareness, discovering the fragmented parts of one's personality and integrating the polarities.[2] The emphasis in Gestalt Therapy is on becoming aware, experiencing, and releasing blocked energy, while the emphasis in TA is weighted toward analyzing, conceptualizing and rational understanding. Both TA and Gestalt have similar positive values, e.g., autonomy, sensory awareness, responsibility, emotional self-support, the ability to make direct, straightforward contact with others, and the ability to be intimate with others. The values are also similar to those of Feminist Therapy. All three are therapies of change and can be used in a self-help manner.

Gestalt Therapy

Brien and Sheldon (1977) as well as Polster (1974) point to ways Gestalt Therapy can be helpful to women. Since Gestalt expands one's experience and feelings by focusing on how one is acting rather than why, a woman can become more aware of how she is blocking herself (Brien & Sheldon, 1977). Because of the phenomenological nature of Gestalt, it is difficult to support women (or men) in sexist roles. Furthermore, Gestalt Therapy encourages women to discover their wants, to take responsibility for themselves, and to heighten their self-esteem by becoming aware of conditioning which encourages the adoption of role behaviors which are incongruent with the individual.

A most detailed viewpoint of the advantageous aspects of Gestalt Therapy for women is given by Polster (1974). In the process of growing up, little girls learn to deny and disown parts of themselves. However, these rejected parts do not disappear but often serve as the basis for ongoing internal conflicts. A woman who remains out of touch with her personal polarities is likely to be immobile and ineffective. Even though she may recognize her polarities and know what changes to make, she may feel unable to make them. Gestalt Therapy can enable a woman to become aware of these polarities and also enable her to discover how she is keeping herself from making needed changes.

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[2] Elizabeth Denton's foregoing comparative summary of Gestalt and TA is used with permission.

Gestalt Therapy is useful for female clients because it focuses on awareness of behavior and personal polarities, encourages women to discover their wants, elicits self-responsibility, and induces heightened self-esteem. Several aspects of Gestalt Therapy coincide with Feminist Therapy. Both therapies emphasize integration of mind, body, emotion and social expression. In addition, both encourage assertive behavior by emphasizing contact between self and environment and the expression of one's feelings, thoughts, needs, and wishes. Furthermore, since Gestalt Therapy can be used in groups, women can obtain the support of other women and identify with commonly expressed problems and concerns.

Although many aspects of Gestalt Therapy are advantageous for women, some qualifications are necessary. Since Gestalt therapists are encouraged to develop their own style and to express their individual way of being, the practice of therapy depends largely upon the belief system of the therapist. Therefore, it is important to know that the therapist does not encourage sex-role stereotyping and is knowledgeable about the unique concerns of women. In addition, if the therapist is too active, a passive woman may be encouraged to remain passive. Another precaution involves the problem of separating personal and social responsibility for the woman's current situation. Many women may find this a very difficult concept, since female socialization has encouraged women to be responsible for others instead of themselves.

Behavioral Therapy

Behavioral Therapy and Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) have also been applied to the unique concerns of women in psychotherapy (Ellis, 1974; Fodor, 1974; Lazarus, 1974; Tennov, 1978). Fodor (1974) discussed the application of Behavioral Therapy to achievement concerns, phobias, the problems of female delinquents, and underemployed women. Assertiveness training, a widely used behavioral technique especially helpful for women, is discussed as a separate unit. While Beck and Greenberg (1974) related their use of cognitive therapy for the treatment of depressed women, Ellis (1974) addressed the utilization of Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) to the love-sex issues of women. Furthermore, Lange and Jakubowski (1976) emphasized the cognitive and rational-emotive aspects of assertion training.

Fodor (1974) suggests that a behavioral approach to the therapy of women who are attempting to expand old roles or learn new ones would include: (1) a challenge of the "morality" of conforming to sex-role stereotypes; (2) reinforcements so that prestige, competence, or goodness can be associated with new or expanded interests and role behaviors; (3) non-stereotypic female therapists as role models; (4) approval for expanded role repertories from both male and female therapists; and (5) techniques such as desensitization, assertion training, role modeling, and the sensitive use of positive reinforcement. In addition, most of the overt symptoms related to achievement issues appear as work blocks, phobias, or anxiety attacks. Fodor also suggests a behavioral analysis followed by systematic desensitization for a client whose sex-role conflict has caused the underlying achievement-related symptoms.

In her extensive exploration of phobias, Fodor (1974) asserted that phobias in women appear to be related to sex-role conflict. This is especially true for agoraphobia (fear of being in public places), which has associated symptoms of superhelplessness and dependency. Fodor (1974) cited research stating that 75 percent of phobic patients are women. Furthermore, she summarizes that 84 percent of agoraphobes--people who cannot cope with the outside world but remain housebound--are female. After a review of the literature, Fodor concluded that childhood learning and socialization experiences which reinforce females for continued dependency may provide clues to understanding phobic symptoms and related personality patterns of dependency and avoidance (1974).

A behavioral approach to the treatment of phobias begins with a behavioral diagnosis based on a detailed history of the patient's phobia patterns (Fodor, 1974). It is followed by desensitization, which involves relaxation training, as well as expanded desensitization related to a hierarchy of more generalized fears. Behavioral rehearsal is then employed to develop a new repertoire of behavior. Agoraphobic women respond favorably when treatment is provided in a group setting, with the emphasis placed on goal setting and an examination of women's roles. Modeling is also a helpful procedure and can include models who are initially fearful but master the feared stimulus, as well as models who rationally talk themselves out of their fear. A female therapist or other independent women from different social backgrounds are effective models. However, working with a male therapist may help in providing positive feedback on the woman's expanded role repertoire from males as well as females. Working with the family of the agoraphobic woman is also important, since family members play a vital role in maintaining the agoraphobic behavior.

In addition to her work on achievement concerns and the phobias of women, Fodor (1974) has also used Behavioral Therapy with female delinquents and underemployed women. She believes that female delinquents vacillate between stereotypic male behavior, e.g., open rebellion, and stereotypic feminine behaviors, such as acting overly dependent in the institution. In utilizing Behavioral Therapy with these women, Fodor recommended enabling them to set goals and work toward them using modeling and reinforcement for adaptive behavior. Fodor also suggested behavioral techniques to help women in underpaid, low status employment positions to become more assertive, take an active role in upgrading their positions, and train themselves to handle greater responsibility.

Self-management is an important facet of Behavioral Therapy. In a discussion of self-management for women, Tennov (1978) explains the concepts involved in analyzing activities and capabilities, setting attainable goals, baseline measurement, effects of baseline recording on behavior, and planning and principles of reinforcement. She relates the use of these concepts to some of the particular needs of women. Self-management of housework, child care, emotions, thoughts, money and work are discussed. Additionally, the ideas of self-management are applied to social relationships.

Rational Emotive Therapy (RET)

Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) is a cognitive theory which may be termed humanistic in that it deals largely with the beliefs, attitudes, and values of human beings as the center of the universe.[3] In addition, it refutes an "adjustment" notion of mental health while attempting to provide a balance between concern for self and others. Furthermore, it attempts to strike a balance between short- and long-range hedonism, as well as providing help for immediate situations.

RET was popularized by Albert Ellis, whose original idea stems from the stoic philosophy of Epictetus: "People feel disturbed not by things, but by the views which they take of them." The therapy process is educative, didactic, and directive, and no attempt is made to mystify the process or therapist. RET does not follow the medical (disease) model. The disturbance in the individual is viewed as resulting from faulty thinking (Ellis, 1973).

Ellis summarized RET theory and practice in the following ABC form: A--Activating event; B--the individual's Belief (iB); C--the upsetting emotional Consequence; D--Disputing irrational beliefs; E--new and better functioning Effects [Cognitive Effects (cE) and Behavior Effects (bE)]. The basic RET technique consists of clearly seeing, understanding, disputing, altering, and acting against irrational internal verbalizations. Changing these verbalizations leads to the modification of self-defeating emotions and self-sabotaging behaviors. When people say, "that makes me anxious," or, "you make me angry," Ellis points out that they have made themselves anxious through their irrational beliefs or interpretations of the actual event.

Ellis states seven basic irrational ideas. They are:

1. I must be loved or approved by every significant person in my life.
2. I must be thoroughly competent in all respects in order to be worthwhile.
3. Some people are bad and should be blamed and punished for their villainy.
4. It is catastrophic when things are not the way I want them to be.
5. Human unhappiness is externally caused, so I have no control over my emotions.
6. It is easier to avoid than to face life's difficulties and self-responsibilities.
7. One's past history is an all-important determiner of one's present behavior, and because something once strongly affected one's life, it should always affect it.

In addition to identifying irrational beliefs, RET places a strong emphasis on semantics, e.g., all forms of the verb "to be" are dropped, as in "I am a loser." Furthermore, RET incorporates a number of behavioral techniques such as assertiveness training, homework assignments, covert imaging, and others.

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[3] Summary of RET by Elizabeth Wyman and P. Kay Coleman from the work of Albert Ellis (1973).

An example of the specific application of RET relevant to females is found in Ellis' (1974) approach to the love-sex concerns of women. One symptom of disturbance is in Ellis' terminology, "love slobbism." Because many women feel that they must be part of an intimate twosome, when they are rejected, overwhelming feelings of dependence, depression, and self-downing (slobbism) occur as a response to irrational beliefs about the rejection. A woman may feel, "I can't stand being rejected," rather than experiencing sad, regretful or irritated feelings in response to national beliefs regarding rejection, i.e., "I don't like being rejected." By encouraging a woman to dispute her irrational beliefs, the therapist enables her to focus on more appropriate and self-motivating feelings of sadness and concern. Ellis approached problems of sexual inadequacy by combining RET with other techniques such as sensate focus, desensitizing, sexual imaging, and rational emotive imaging. In addition, Ellis advocated assertiveness training. Assertiveness training will be discussed as a separate issue.

Since the RET therapist deals so intensely with the belief and value system of the client, it is imperative that the therapist challenge sex-role stereotyped behaviors and attitudes of female clients. Furthermore, the value system of the counselor will influence the client in replacing ineffective beliefs with those more appropriate to her situation. Therefore, it is most important that the belief and value system of the therapist include an awareness of sex-role stereotyping and the unique psychotherapy concerns of women.

Beck and Greenberg (1974) used cognitive therapy in the treatment of depressed women. Dealing with overt symptoms or behaviors, the cognitive therapist formulates the presenting symptoms in terms of basic misconceptions or irrational beliefs. Through a variety of therapeutic techniques, the client is taught to become aware of her "automatic thoughts" and to restructure maladaptive cognitions. In addition, the cognitive therapist may call to the attention of the depressed client the stereotyped themes pervading her thinking. Furthermore, the depressed client may hold misconceptions, prejudices, and superstitions which need to become exposed and to be evaluated. Utilizing both pictorial and verbal idiosyncratic cognitions, the cognitive therapist may use behavioral techniques to assist the client in changing her depressed feelings.

Transactional Analysis, Gestalt, Behavioral and Rational Emotive Therapies have been discussed regarding their applications to some issues faced by women in psychotherapy. An analysis of sex roles and women's scripts were the two aspects of TA utilized, although others are available. Since Gestalt Therapy focuses on awareness of behavior and personal polarities, encourages women to discover their wants, elicits self-responsibility, and induces heightened self-esteem, it is considered a helpful therapy for women. Behavioral Therapy was included because of its application to self-management, achievement, phobias, female delinquency and underemployment among women. Depressed women have been helped by cognitive therapy, and RET has been applied to the love-sex concerns of women. Although the therapeutic techniques can be utilized in a manner which facilitates the expansion of old roles and the acquisition of new behaviors, an awareness of sex-role stereotyped behavior and the skillful use of these procedures are matters of utmost importance.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography for this lesson. Procure a chalkboard. Review the objectives and learning activities in this lesson and select those most congruent with the goals of your class. Assign student readings.

Activity I: What's Your Script? (Objectives 1-2)

1. Duplicate Handout for Activity I: "Childhood Messages" (pp. 1/151-1/152).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture on the basic principles of TA. Include a short summary of sex-role analysis, the Karpman triangle, and scripts women commonly play.

Related Readings:

Jongeward, D. & Scott, D. Women as winners. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Wyckoff, H. Love, therapy, and politics. New York: Grove Press, 1976.

Wyckoff, H. Solving women's problems. New York: Grove Press, 1977.

Activity II: Becoming Aware (Objective 3)

1. Practice reading the Gestalt exercise. Be sure to allow ample time for each part.
2. Prepare a mini-lecture which summarizes the basic principles of Gestalt Therapy.

Related Readings:

Brien, L. & Sheldon, C. Gestalt therapy and women. In E. I. Rawlings & D. K. Carter (Eds.), Psychotherapy for women: Treatment toward equality. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publishers, 1977.

Fagan, J. & Shepherd, I. L. (Eds.), Gestalt therapy now. Palo Alto, California: Science and Behavior Books, 1970; and New York: Harper and Row, 1971.

Polster, M. Women in therapy: A gestalt therapist's view. In V. Franks & V. Burtle (Eds.), Women in therapy: New psychotherapies for a changing society. New York: Brunner/ Mazel Publishers, 1974.

Activity III: How to Be Your Own Manager (Objective 4)

1. Prepare a mini-lecture which summarizes the basic principles of behavior therapy.

Related Readings:

Cormier, L. S. & Cormier, W. H. Behavioral counseling: Operant procedures, self-management strategies, and recent innovations. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1975.

Cormier, W. H. & Cormier, L. S. Behavioral counseling: Initial procedures, individual and group strategies. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1975.

Fodor, I. G. The phobic syndrome in women: Implications for treatment. In V. Franks & V. Burtle (Eds.), Women in therapy: New psychotherapies for a changing society. New York: Brunner/ Mazel Publishers, 1974.

Fodor, I. G. Sex-role conflict and symptom formation in women: Can behavior therapy work? Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1974, 11, 22-29.

Tennov, D. Super self: A woman's guide to self-management. New York: Jove/Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1978.

Activity IV: I Know It Isn't True, But . . . (Objective 5)

1. Prepare a mini-lecture on the basic concepts involved in RET. Include Ellis' ABC system and the seven basic irrational beliefs he formulated.

2. Duplicate Handout for Activity IV: "I Know It Isn't True, But . . ." (p. 1/153).

Related Readings:

Beck, A. T. & Greenberg, R. L. Cognitive therapy with depressed women. In V. Franks & V. Burtle (Eds.), Women in therapy: New psychotherapies for a changing society. New York: Brunner/Mazel Publishers, 1974.

Ellis, A. Humanistic psychotherapy. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.

Ellis, A. The treatment of sex and love problems in women. In V. Franks & V. Burtle (Eds.), Women in therapy: New psychotherapies for a changing society. New York: Brunner/Mazel Publishers, 1974.

Oliver, R. The "empty nest syndrome" as a focus of depression: A cognitive treatment model, based on rational emotive therapy. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1976, 14(1), 87-94.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: What's Your Script? (Objectives 1 and 2)

The purpose of this activity is to increase participants' awareness of how TA may be used to examine sex roles.

1. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity I: "Childhood Messages" (pp. 1/151-1/152). After the participants have recorded their answers, have them form into groups of four to share their reactions.

2. Present a mini-lecture on the basic principles of TA. Include a summary of typical scripts women play, the Karpman triangle and the ego states most commonly developed by men and by women.

3. Begin a class discussion with the following questions:
   a. Which script do you identify with the most? If you identify with parts of several scripts, which parts?
   b. What are some of your childhood messages that are related to the scripts with which you identify?
   c. Do you usually play Victim, Rescuer, or Persecutor? Other? Do you play more than one role? In what situations do you switch roles?
   d. Are your ego states developed along stereotypic lines or in some other ways? How are they alike or different? How does the sex-role stereotyped development of ego interfere with communication between men and women?

Activity II: Becoming Aware (Objective 3)

The purpose of this activity is to provide an opportunity for participants to experience a Gestalt Therapy exercise.

1. Ask the participants to be involved in a Gestalt exercise. The following exercise was adapted from Jongeward and Scott (1976, p. 170) by Richelle Blumberg:

   Read slowly, using a calm, soothing voice. (*) Means to pause for a few seconds. "Find a comfortable position. Close your eyes. * Begin to concentrate on your breathing. * Inhale deeply, allowing your lungs to fill and your chest to rise. * Exhale, and feel your lungs pushing the air out. * Inhale, * exhale. * If you feel any tension in your body, concentrate on letting the tension flow out and sink to the floor below you. * Try tensing your muscles tightly, then relaxing them. * Pay special attention to your back, your shoulders, your neck, your jaw, and your forehead. * Allow your whole body to relax. * Begin thinking about ways you are trying to be perfect. * Is trying to be perfect getting in your way? * Listen to the message you hear in your head when you say, "I must be perfect." * What, specifically, is it? * Is it something like, "you should have done better?" or "that's good, but there's room for improvement"? * Now exaggerate your message and your response to it. * Be aware of how you feel. * Select a task in which trying to be perfect is getting in the way of accomplishing it. * If you feel the work you have done toward accomplishing this task is not good enough, exaggerate your contempt for your work. * Think how awful you feel about your work. * Examine every aspect; think of ways you feel your work is inadequate. * Pick one small aspect of this task and think of ways you can improve it. * Be aware of how you feel as you make improvements and it becomes better. * As you think, listen to your comments. * Are your comments encouraging to you or do they promote a discouraging feeling? * What will happen if you don't do the task perfectly? * What will happen if you don't do it at all? * What will happen if you do the task 80% rather than 100%? * Is it worth it to you to spend the time on the task to improve it? * What will you have to give up to perform the task perfectly? * Which is more important to you--what you must give up or performing the task perfectly? * Carry on an internal dialogue between the part that wants to do the task perfectly and the part that doesn't want to give up anything. * Which do you value most? * When you are ready, open your eyes."

2. Ask the participants, if they are willing, to share their experience.

3. Present a mini-lecture, summarizing the basic principles of Gestalt Therapy.

4. Hold a class discussion, using the following lead questions:
    a. How was the exercise helpful?
    b. What are some other effects of traditional socialization that a Gestalt experience can enable a woman to become aware of?
    c. How does Gestalt Therapy interface with Feminist Therapy? How might it be used to contradict Feminist Therapy?
    d. How are TA and Gestalt alike? How are they different?

Activity III: How to Be Your Own Manager (Objective 4)

The purpose of this activity is to give the students experience with self-management concepts.

1. Ask the participants to conduct a self-management project. After reading Super Self: A Woman's Guide to Self-Management by Dorothy Tennov (1978), have them carry out the project following the guidelines suggested by Tennov:
    a. Take an average of the levels of activity you were engaged in for each hour of the day. Also take an average of your levels of capability for each hour. Plot the two averages on a graph.
    b. Note your hours of overemployment and hours of underemployment. Rearrange your schedule so that activity levels and capability levels coincide.

2. Present a mini-lecture on the basic concepts of Behavioral Therapy. Include the principles involved in self-management.

3. Begin a class discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. In what instances would it be appropriate to use behavioral techniques with a female client?
    b. What are some facets of female socialization that contribute to many women not knowing how to manage their time, money, work, etc.?
    c. What is baseline measurement? How might baseline recording affect behavior?
    d. What is reinforcement? Shaping? Why is punishment not recommended in self-management?
    e. What does it mean when a self-management program fails?
    f. Why is it important to teach women self-management concepts?
    g. In what instances would it be appropriate to teach self-management principles?

Activity IV: I Know It Isn't True, But . . . (Objective 5)

The purpose of this activity is to familiarize participants with the principles of RET.

1. Present a mini-lecture on RET which includes Ellis' ABC system and the seven basic irrational ideas he formulated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity IV (p. 1/153).

2. Form groups of three. Ask each participant to share a personal situation which elicited irrational beliefs. Have participants identify their negative, self-defeating, irrational thoughts. Next have each person think of alternative rational beliefs and consequences (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976, p. 94).

3. Begin a class discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. In what ways is RET compatible with Feminist Therapy?
    b. Why is it important for the RET therapist to be aware of sex-role stereotyping?

c. How could RET be useful to modify (a) the lack of self-confidence of a re-entry woman; (b) the anxiety of a widow; (c) women who are afraid to let their achievements be known; and (d) nonassertive behavior.

Optional Learning Activities

Ask groups of two to four students to select one of the therapeutic approaches about which they will prepare a class presentation. They should present an overview of the theory, a rationale for using this therapy with women, the limitations of the therapy, and a demonstration of techniques. The bibliography at the end of Lesson 4 can be used to begin research. Guest facilitators who have expertise regarding a particular therapy may be invited.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What ego states as described in TA are most commonly developed by men? Women? How does this stereotypic development interfere with communication between men and women?

2. Discuss four stereotyped women's scripts. What factors might have influenced a woman who follows such scripting?

3. Explain the Karpman triangle. What are some ways you can use it when counseling?

4. How can Gestalt Therapy be an advantageous therapy for women?

5. How does Gestalt Therapy interface with Feminist Therapy? How might it be used to contradict Feminist Therapy?

6. How are TA and Gestalt alike? How are they different?

7. What are some facets of female socialization that contribute to many women not knowing how to manage their time, money, work, etc.?

8. What is baseline measurement? How might baseline recording affect behavior?

9. What is reinforcement? Shaping? Why is punishment not recommended in self-management?

10. What does it mean when a self-management plan fails?

11. Why is it important to teach women self-management concepts?

12. In what specific instances would it be appropriate to teach self-management principles?

13. Explain Ellis' ABC system of RET.

14. Discuss the seven basic irrational ideas that Ellis formulated.

15. In what ways is RET compatible with Feminist Therapy?

16. Why is it important for the RET therapist to be aware of sex-role stereotyping?

17. How could RET be used to modify (a) the lack of self-confidence of a re-entry woman; (b) the anxiety of a widow; (c) women who are afraid to let their achievements be known; and (d) nonassertive behavior?

Handout for Activity I

CHILDHOOD MESSAGES*

As you read through each of the following questions, think about the comments you heard as a child. You may find it interesting to do this exercise with another person or with a group. Do not be concerned about whether the message was true or false; just ask yourself, "Was it frequently repeated or implied?"

What are the messages you received about:

the importance of your intelligence?

the intelligence of women in general?

your ability to solve problems?

your education?

your vocation?

earning money?

marriage?

children?

your relationship to men?

your body?

your ability to excel in sports?

feminine behavior?

masculine behavior?

leadership?

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*Reprinted from Women as Winners by Dorothy Jongeward and Dru Scott, copyright © 1976, by permission of Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts.

your place in religion?

your spiritual life?

your ability to drive cars, buses, and trucks?

working mothers?

your future duties?

your physical agility and grace?

touching your genitals?

the importance of your appearance?

You probably discovered some new insights about yourself. Now ask:

How do these messages affect what I'm doing in my life now?

How do they affect my relationships with men and with women?

What impacts me in a positive way?

What impacts me in a negative way?

How can I build more of my life around the positive?

What messages might a typical little girl growing up hear? Are they similar to those you received? Are they different? If so, in what ways?

Now ask yourself what a typical little boy would be likely to hear about these questions. How are his messages different from a little girl's? From yours? Think about how different messages affect the scripts of most men and women.

Handout for Activity IV

I KNOW IT ISN'T TRUE, BUT . . .

SEVEN BASIC IRRATIONAL IDEAS*

1. I must be loved or approved by every significant person in my life.
2. I must be thoroughly competent in all respects in order to be worthwhile.
3. Some people are bad and should be blamed and punished for their villainy.
4. It is catastrophic when things are not the way I want them to be.
5. Human unhappiness is externally caused; I have no control over my emotions.
6. It is easier to avoid than to face life's difficulties and self-responsibilities.
7. One's past history is an all-important determiner of one's present behavior, and because something once strongly affected one's life, it should always affect it.

The ABC of RET*

A	Activating event
B	The individual Belief (iB)
C	The upsetting emotional Consequence
D	Disputing irrational beliefs
E	New and better functioning Effects [cognitive Effects (cE) and behavior Effects (bE)]

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*Taken from Humanistic psychotherapy: The rational-emotive approach by Albert Ellis, Ph.D. © 1973 by The Institute for Rational Living. Used by permission of The Julian Press, a division of Crown Publishers.

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LESSON 5

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING AS THERAPY

OBJECTIVES

1. To explain why women have traditionally been nonassertive.

   References: Baer, 1976; Bloom, Coburn, & Pearlman, 1975; Butler, 1976; Osborn & Harris, 1975; Phelps & Austin, 1975.

2. To explain how and why the cognitive components of assertiveness training are important.

   References: Bloom, Coburn & Pearlman, 1975; Butler, 1976; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976; Phelps & Austin, 1975.

3. To describe the behavioral components of assertiveness training.

   References: Butler, 1976; Osborn & Harris, 1975; Phelps & Austin, 1975.

4. To suggest some ethical issues regarding assertiveness training.

   References: Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Galassi & Galassi, 1977.

NARRATIVE

Sex-Role Socialization versus Assertiveness

In the majority of world cultures, women have been discouraged from being assertive. Although the socialization process reinforces women for being sensitive to others' feelings and needs, women have not been reinforced for expressing their own feelings and needs. In order to adapt to their cultures, women became nonassertive in expression and also suppressed parts of their identity. For example, women in our culture are not reinforced for being ambitious; therefore, this drive is suppressed or transferred onto husbands and children. With the growing flexibility of sex-role stereotypes, women are gradually receiving more environmental reinforcement for assertive behavior.

However, recent studies show that traditional femininity still excludes assertiveness. The "ladylike" woman should be always cheerful, compassionate, understanding, warm, yielding, polite, passive, and compliant, even at the expense of her own feelings. Her role is to nurture others. She is not a leader. She has difficulty in making decisions, in defending her beliefs or in taking a risk.

Butler (1976) found that American women are significantly less assertive than men. Four areas of freely expressed assertiveness are conceptualized by Butler: positive feelings, negative feelings, limit setting, and self-initiation. In only one area--the expression of positive feelings--were women freer than men to assert themselves. Women found it particularly difficult to express anger and resentment, and to prevent other people from intruding on them.

Two exceptions exist in the general rule that women are freer to express positive feelings. The first exception is in beginning relationships with men. Women fear being labeled "forward" or "pushy." The second exception is in making positive statements about themselves. Few women are comfortable in describing their own positive attributes and accomplishments.

It is easy to understand how a stereotypically feminine woman would have difficulty being assertive except for the topic of positive feelings. For example, if her role is to nurture others, how can she express anger--an emotion derived from the frustration of her own needs? If she lives for another person, she cannot say no to his/her requests. If she is supposed to derive her own sense of accomplishment through her family's achievements, how can she initiate action to satisfy her own achievement desires?

It is important to point out that in becoming more assertive a woman is not rejecting aspects of the feminine role such as nurturance, warmth, and sensitivity. The traditional viewpoint of psychology and sociology assumes that a person learns and expresses either the masculine or feminine stereotypic role (Laws, 1975). In reality, this dichotomy does not exist.

Women can be forceful without losing the ability to be nurturing. Assertiveness training gives women a chance to make a free choice to express themselves as whole people, fully human, and androgynous.

Phelps and Austin (1975) make a special point of reminding assertiveness trainers that many women think that they risk having their femininity questioned. Behaving assertively often means exhibiting positive traits, such as ambition, autonomy, independence, and self-expression, which are usually thought to be appropriate only for men. It is extremely important for women to be aware of their attitudes about assertion. If a woman does choose to explore assertive alternatives, she may fear the loss of outside support from family and friends.

The following is a list of childhood messages that would inhibit assertive behavior.[1]

1. Girls are helpless and need protection.
2. Girls should always be helpful.
3. Girls are fearful.
4. Girls are dependent and easily influenced.
5. Girls are weak and fragile.
6. Girls are obedient; boys will be boys.
7. Girls who assert themselves are being aggressive.

A woman who believes that it would be terrible to behave assertively is not likely to try it. However, once she is aware of such attitudes she can analyze them realistically and decide if she wants to learn to be assertive. This concept of becoming aware of irrational attitudes and looking at them realistically is borrowed from Albert Ellis' (1973) rational therapy approach. This topic will be covered in more detail in Activity III.

The Rationale for Assertiveness Training

Several theorists have postulated that behavior change can foster changes in feelings and/or attitudes (Paul, 1965; Thorenson, 1969). Assertive training assumes that changing an overt behavior pattern such as nonassertiveness or aggressiveness will result in greater feelings of self-worth in addition to greater freedom in choosing a style of interaction. Assertive people will experience a feeling of greater control over their lives than passive or aggressive individuals will.

Assertiveness training is based on Wolpe's (1966) concept of reciprocal inhibition. This concept holds, for example, that a person cannot be anxious and relaxed at the same time. If a woman is comfortable while being assertive she will not fear being assertive.

Instead of focusing on the classic psychodynamic treatment involving transference and traditional insight to decrease nonassertiveness, assertiveness training focuses on learning a new behavior. For much of the population, nonassertiveness is situation-specific. Some people can be assertive in obtaining goods and services for others but not for themselves. Some can be assertive with strangers but not with their family or vice versa. Some can request a change in another person's behavior but cannot accept a compliment without blushing or denying it.

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[1] Adapted from Phelps and Austin, 1975.

Definitions: Nonassertive, Aggressive, and Assertive

The nonassertive, or passive, life style is characterized by such terms as inhibited, helpless, and powerless. Nervousness and anxiety are common symptoms. The nonassertive woman allows other people to make her decisions for her, and later may resent them for it. She rarely expresses her own feelings and rarely takes the initiative in any situation.

Consequences: Lange and Jakubowski (1976) point out that the immediate consequence of nonassertion is a reduction in tension, resulting from the escape from anxiety-producing conflicts. It is also reinforcing to be praised by others for being selfless, quiet, and generally agreeable.

However, over a period of time the nonassertive person develops a low self-concept and a growing sense of hurt and anger. If the resulting tension builds up, physical symptoms may develop. Another common result is general depression. Butler (1976) relates women's depression to Seligman's (1975) concept of learned helplessness.

Eventually, personal relationships may suffer. People interested in sharing honest expressions of thoughts and feelings will not be attracted to nonassertive people. Others may develop guilt feelings after continually taking advantage of the nonassertive person. Finally, those who pity the nonassertive person will eventually become irritated and withdraw in disgust.

The aggressive person is characterized by such terms as obnoxious, vicious, or egocentric. Such people habitually deprecate and humiliate those with whom they relate. The indirectly aggressive woman uses trickery, seduction, or manipulation to get what she wants.

Consequences: As with nonassertion, the immediate consequences of aggression are positive. Among the immediate results are emotional release, a sense of power, and the achievement of desired results, at least on a short-term basis. However, over time aggressive people find that they are losing or never establishing close interpersonal relationships. They also must be on guard against overt and covert counter-attack from others. Eventually they may feel deeply misunderstood, unloved, and unlovable.

The assertive person is characterized as spontaneous, honest, and direct. The assertive individual conveys respect rather than deference for the other person's rights and feelings. Galassi and Galassi (1977) differentiate between positive assertion, which consists of the expression of feelings of love, affection, admiration, approval and agreement, and negative assertion, which includes expressions of disagreement, anger, dissatisfaction, and annoyance. Alberti and Emmons (1978) define assertive behavior as that which allows a person to express honest feelings comfortably, to be direct and straightforward, and to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others and without experiencing undue anxiety or guilt.

Consequences: Bloom, Coburn, and Pearlman (1975) find that assertive people usually achieve their goals, and even when they do not, they feel good about themselves, knowing that they have been straightforward. Another consequence is the likelihood of a reduction in physical ailments. Alberti and Emmons (1978) note that complaints such as headaches, asthma, gastric disorders and general fatigue often clear up.

The Rights of Women

The first popular book on assertiveness training was titled Your Perfect Right (Alberti & Emmons, 1978). Because women have traditionally not expressed their rights, they have often forgotten what rights they do have. For this reason, several authors have compiled lists of basic rights.

Baer (1976, pp. 62-63) notes seven basic inalienable rights of women:

1. The right to have rights and to stand up for them.
2. The right to dignity and self-respect.
3. The right to consider your own needs. (Your needs are not always considered last.)
4. The right to self-fulfillment (to be competent).
5. The right to accept challenges (includes the rights to make mistakes and take risks).
6. The right to determine your own life style.
7. The right to change yourself, your behavior, values, and life situation.

Smith (1975, p. i) has also compiled a list of rights which seem especially applicable to women.

A Bill of Assertive Rights

1. You have the right to judge your own behavior, thoughts, and emotions, and to take responsibility for their initiation and consequences upon yourself.
2. You have the right to offer no reasons or excuses for justifying your behavior.
3. You have the right to judge if you are responsible for finding solutions to other people's problems.
4. You have the right to change your mind.
5. You have the right to make mistakes--and be responsible for them.
6. You have the right to say, "I don't know."
7. You have the right to be independent of the goodwill of others before coping with them.
8. You have the right to be illogical in making decisions.
9. You have the right to say, "I don't understand."
10. You have the right to say, "I don't care."

A more complete list of universal human rights is to be found in Alberti and Emmons (1978).

The get permission syndrome occurs in many women who seldom stand up for their rights (Baer, 1976). In order to act on their rights, these women must first get permission from their man. Often these women express the feeling that they have no rights, or if they do, such rights exist only in abstract form (such as the right to be happy) and never seem to apply to any specific information.

Another attitude that prevents women from acting on their rights is called by Phelps and Austin (1975) the compassion trap. This attitude, which was first described by Margaret Adams (1971), is exclusive to women who feel that they exist to serve others, and who believe that they must provide tenderness and compassion at all times.

In addition to these difficulties, Jongeward and Scott (1976) describe several scripts based on Transactional Analysis techniques which exclude assertive behavior. Such scripts include Lady Atlas, Mother Hubbard, Cinderella, and Beauty and the Beast. These scripts are described in Lesson 4 of this module.

METHOD

Assessing Areas of Deficiency

There are several methods that can be used to determine what important situational variables are most likely to result in a person's being non-assertive. Assertiveness inventories have been developed by Alberti and Emmons (1978, pp. 40-41), Rathus (1973, pp. 93-406), Baer (1976, pp. 69-77), and Phelps and Austin (1975, pp. 5-7). The Phelps and Austin inventory asks the student to indicate her degree of comfort in being assertive in different areas: for example, saying no, sensuality, anger, humor, children, requesting a change in someone's behavior, being competent, expressing affection, etc. Osborn and Harris (1975) present a 60-item Assertive Behavior Assessment for Women inventory which includes a Likert-scale choice of answers (pp. 193-196).

Less readily available scales include:

1. Wolpe-Lazarus Assertion Questionnaire (Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966)
2. Lawrence Assertive Inventory (Lawrence, 1970)
3. Constriction Scale (Bates & Zimmerman, 1971)

Developing an Assertive Belief System

See Rights (previous two pages)

In Chapter 6 of The New Assertive Woman (Bloom, Coburn, & Pearlman, 1975, pp. 110-114), the authors list seven irrational beliefs which may prevent women from being assertive.

1. If I assert myself, others will get mad at me.
2. If I assert myself and people do become angry with me, I will be devastated; it will be awful.
3. Although I prefer others to be straightforward with me, I'm afraid that if I am open with others and say no, I will hurt them.
4. If my assertion hurts others, I am responsible for their feelings.
5. It is wrong and selfish to turn down legitimate requests. Other people will think I'm terrible and won't like me.
6. At all costs, I must avoid making statements and asking questions that might make me look ignorant or stupid.
7. Assertive women are cold, castrating bitches. If I'm assertive, I'll be so unpleasant that people won't like me.

Importance of an Assertive Belief System

The following list of positive beliefs about assertion should be developed by students of assertion training. They are listed in Chapter 3 of Responsible Assertive Behavior (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976, pp. 55-56):

1. By standing up for ourselves and letting ourselves be known to others, we gain self-respect and respect from other people.
2. By trying to live our lives in such a way that we never hurt anyone under any circumstances, we end up hurting ourselves and other people.
3. When we stand up for ourselves and express our honest feelings and thoughts in direct and appropriate ways, everyone usually benefits in the long run. Likewise, when we demean other people, we also demean ourselves and everyone involved usually loses in the process.
4. By sacrificing our integrity and denying our personal feelings, relationships are usually damaged or prevented from developing. Likewise, personal relationships are hurt when we try to control others through hostility, intimidation, or guilt.
5. Personal relationships become more authentic and satisfying when we share our honest reactions with other people and do not block others' sharing their reactions with us.
6. Not letting others know what we think and feel is just as selfish as not attending to other people's thoughts and feelings.
7. When we sacrifice our rights, we teach other people to take advantage of us.

8. By being assertive and telling other people how their behavior affects us, we are giving them an opportunity to change their behavior, and we are showing respect for their right to know where they stand with us.

Being aware of personal rights helps individuals feel justified in being assertive. Becoming aware of such rights makes it easier for people to give themselves permission to be themselves. They can tell themselves that it is okay to be different from other people, and to express their real thoughts, feelings, and needs. It is also important, of course, to discuss the responsibilities attached to these rights.

In a chapter entitled "Games Women Play," Bloom, Coburn, and Pearlman (1975) use Eric Berne's concept of games to increase awareness of nonassertive styles. The five games described in this chapter represent indirect, manipulative forms of nonassertive behavior, where the player tries to get what she wants without asking for it. They include covert, ambiguous, indirect and unclear communication. Unfortunately, the principal player is often unaware of the pattern in her behavior. Although she may sometimes receive approval and cooperation with her style, she is always vulnerable and dependent on others to pick up her hints and clues as to what she means and wants. She also risks being misinterpreted. In effect, she relinquishes her power to control her own communication.

Game #1 is the Sufferer, or "After All I've Done for You." This style is clearly reminiscent of the women Pauline Bart (1971) describes in her study on depression in middle-aged women. The sufferer attempts to meet her personal needs by acting overworked, persecuted or totally dependent. The desired goal is to be rescued. Often she looks like a martyr, doing the work that others refuse to do. Her assumption is, "After all I do for you, you should want to do more for me." The process involves shaming others into meeting her unspecified needs or desires--manipulating others through guilt. Often this strategy backfires, as others assume that it is the sufferer's function to serve others at her own expense.

Other games include: #2 Uninvolved, or "It Doesn't Matter to Me, Whatever You Want"; #3 the Wet Blanket, or "I Won't Fight, but I Won't Give You the Satisfaction, Either"; #4 the Saboteur, or "I'll Go Through the Motions of Doing What You Want, but I'll Silently Fight You Every Step of the Way"; #5 the Seductress, or "Poor Little Me Needs Big, Strong, Handsome You."

The Nonverbal Message

After discussing the philosophy of assertiveness training and defining the three basic styles of interaction, the trainer discusses with the group the nonverbal components of communication. It is imperative that trainees learn to be congruent in their verbal and nonverbal messages. Awareness of the nonverbal components is especially important, because when the verbal content and the nonverbal content are inconsistent, most receivers of such a mixed message weigh the nonverbal communication more heavily. It is because of the importance of nonverbal communication that audio-visual equipment is so often used in assertion training.[2] This is also the reason that it is difficult to learn assertiveness from simply reading a book. In fact, surprisingly few of the self-help books on assertiveness even discuss the importance of body language. Two good presentations can be found in Butler (1976) and Phelps and Austin (1975).

The elements of the nonverbal message include:

Eye Contact - Most women have been taught that it is more feminine to look away or look down. It is quite a simple exercise to demonstrate the impact of eye contact by delivering an identical message with and without eye contact. Making eye contact also increases the speaker's sense of power.

Facial Expression - Some women will require much practice before they will be able to express anger or disapproval without smiling. People who smile in these situations discount their own power.

Posture - The posture should be directed toward the listener, firmly not rigidly. Leaning slightly forward with both feet on the ground adds to an assertive posture. Thirdly, each trainee should experiment to find the distance at which she is most comfortable when delivering an assertive message. This distance is different for each person.

Gestures - Too many and not enough gestures detract from an assertive message. When looking at videotapes, many people discover nervous gestures of which they were previously unaware.

Style of Dress - For important assertive situations, especially on the job, dress makes a difference, not only in how one is seen but also in how one feels. A woman who dresses like a child, a sex object, or a wallflower detracts from her personal power.

Voice -
  Volume: It often helps to ask a woman who rarely speaks above a whisper to exaggerate her volume. At first she will sound aggressive to herself. Feedback from the group is very helpful here.
  Pitch: A lower pitched voice sounds more assertive. Purring and squeaking are nonassertive.
  Rate: Speaking too quickly gives an expression of nervousness.
  Fillers: These are words without meaning, such as "you know," "and uh," and "really." (They usually indicate tentativeness.) Often the speaker who overuses fillers is unaware of their frequency. Audiotape will demonstrate how fillers detract from an assertive style.

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[2] A second benefit of using the videotape is that it usually makes nonassertive people more nervous. If the participant can role play a scene assertively in an anxiety-provoking situation, there is a better chance that the scene will be done assertively in the real situation.

Role Play

For groups of very nonassertive people, the first role-play scenes are "canned." The trainer describes the scene and provides the sentences to be practiced by both members playing the scene. One or more "canned" scenes may be used to perfect the nonverbal components of assertiveness. These scenes are also useful as a relatively nonthreatening vehicle to increase trainee comfort in acting and feeling assertive. A scene is perfected when the trainee feels comfortable acting assertively.

After everyone has successfully role played at least one scene, each group member is asked to construct a list of five real scenes in increasing order of difficulty for the member. This general approach is used so that trainers will maximize chances of success in their initial assertiveness efforts. The scenes may range from asking a roommate to wash his or her share of the dishes to requesting a major change in behavior from a spouse. The least difficult scenes are practiced first. No member begins role playing her second scene until the first has been successfully completed in the real situation.

Osborn and Harris (1975) recommend that the group construct one hierarchy of ten to twenty items. In their experience this method has the advantage of maintaining the whole group's interest in the situation being perfected. This method would be quite beneficial in a relatively homogeneous group.

Behavior Rehearsal

Behavior rehearsal is the most basic component of assertiveness training. Through the use of modeling, reinforcement and practice, behavior can change. The rehearsal provides a protected setting so that the trainee will be more likely to succeed in the real situation.

A more complete list of the elements of behavior rehearsal would include:

1. Modeling. The participant observes someone demonstrating assertive behavior, learning by observation.
2. Covert modeling. The participant imagines someone else being successfully assertive in the problem situation.
3. Rehearsal. The participant practices being assertive, with another participant playing the other person in the interview.
4. Covert rehearsal. The participant imagines herself being successfully assertive in the problem situation.
5. Role reversal. The participant plays the role of the receiver of the assertive behavior, seeking possible insights relevant to the situation.

Group versus Individual Assertiveness Training

Cotler (1975) reports that the group model is generally more effective than individual training. In the group setting, the client receives much needed encouragement from others who are working toward the same goal. Often, support from group members is more meaningful than the support of the leader. The client also profits from observing others practice a wide variety of situations. The group client additionally serves as a "coach" for others. Flowers and Guerra (1974) found that practice as a coach is important in learning assertiveness skills.

Ethical Considerations

Due to the increase in popularized forms of assertiveness training, it is important that both the group facilitators and the group members adhere to the ethical standards as outlined in "Principles for Ethical Practice of Assertive Behavior Training" developed by Alberti (Alberti & Emmons, 1978).

The facilitators should cover these issues (guidelines) during the first session:

Guidelines

1. Group Process: Each person should understand that active giving and receiving of feedback occurs in these groups.
2. Outcomes: Each participant should be given a realistic set of expectations for the assertiveness training.
3. Confidentiality: Group members will be sharing their ideas and feelings in the group. These should not be discussed outside of the group.
4. Videotaping: If videotape equipment is utilized as recommended, the participants must give written permission for others to view it. The videotape should be erased immediately.
5. Homework: Participants should know that homework will be assigned between sessions and that completion of these assignments is imperative before the next session.
6. Trained Facilitators: Participants should be acquainted with the facilitator's (or cofacilitator's) credentials at the beginning of the first session. Lange and Jakubowski (1976) outline some basic qualifications for assertiveness training trainers: (a) previous supervised experience in counseling and group work, (b) assertive participation in an assertiveness training group, and (c) training from a reputable trainer that adheres to the above criteria.

7. Screening: Prior to the first session or at the beginning of the first session, participants should be screened. Persons desiring a therapy group or individuals experiencing some form of personal crisis or trauma should be referred to the appropriate counselor (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

8. Group Size and Group Makeup: The size of the group should be kept at a reasonable number (12-15, with two facilitators) to allow for some individual attention. If the groups are co-ed, that is, with male and female participants, then it is best to try to equalize the number of men and women and to try to provide a female and a male cofacilitator.

9. Time: Participants should be aware of the beginning and ending times for each session.

10. Responsibility: Participants should give the person who is doing the scene full attention and all comments should be behavior-specific rather than personally oriented. Any participant can "pass" at any time.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography for this lesson. Obtain a chalkboard. Review the objectives and learning activities in this lesson and select those most congruent with the goals of your class. Assign student readings.

Note: If you plan to model an assertive interaction for the class, it will be most helpful to videotape yourself in advance to check for possible nonassertive behaviors.

Activity I: The Stereotyped Feminine Role versus the Assertive Woman (Objective 1)

Prepare a mini-lecture summarizing the effects of sex-role socialization on assertive behavior.

Related Readings:

Baer, J. *How to be an assertive (not aggressive) woman*. New York: Signet, 1976.

*Bardwick, J. M. & Douvan, E. Ambivalence: The socialization of women. In V. Gornick & B. K. Moran (Eds.), *Woman in sexist society*. New York: Basic Books, 1971.

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Phelps, S. & Austin, N. *The assertive woman*. Fredericksburg, Virginia: Impact, 1975.

Activity II: Developing an Assertive Belief System--Personal Rights (Objective 2)

1. Duplicate the list of universal human rights presented in the appendix of *Your Perfect Right* by Alberti and Emmons (1978). Optional.

2. Prepare a mini-lecture summarizing some specific personal rights. Emphasize the importance of an assertive belief system.

Related Readings:

Alberti, R. E. & Emmons, M. L. *Your perfect right*. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact, 1978.

*Baer, J. *How to be an assertive (not aggressive)* woman. New York: Signet, 1976.

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Activity III: Developing an Assertive Belief System--Irrational Ideas (Objective 2)

1. Duplicate Handouts for Activity III-A: "I Know It Isn't True, But . . ." (p. 1/193) and III-B and C: "It Ain't Necessarily So" (pp. 1/195-1/198).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture summarizing Rational Emotive Therapy as it applies to assertiveness training.

Related Readings:

*Bloom, L. Z., Coburn, K., & Pearlman, J. The new assertive woman. New York: Delacorte Press, 1975.

*Ellis, A. Humanistic psychotherapy: The rational-emotive approach. New York: Julian Press, 1973.

*Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity IV: Behavior Rehearsal--The Verbal and Nonverbal Message (Objectives 3 and 4)

1. Obtain videotaping and playback equipment.
2. Prepare some "canned" assertive scenes, if necessary.
3. Prepare a mini-lecture describing the various elements of nonverbal communication.

Related Readings:

Butler, P. E. Self-assertion for women. San Francisco: Harper and Row, 1976.

*Osborn, S. M. & Harris, G. G. Assertive training for women. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1975.

Phelps, S. & Austin, N. The assertive woman. Fredericksburg, Virginia: Impact, 1975.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: The Stereotyped Feminine Role versus the Assertive Woman (Objective)

The purpose of this exercise is to clarify for the participants why women often need special training in order to learn to be assertive.

1. Explain that one way to be nonassertive is through the overt and covert messages we received as children concerning the correct way to behave. These messages came from our parents, relatives, teachers, and ministers.
2. Ask students to spend 5-10 minutes making a list of messages they received on correct feminine behavior, using the following questions as a guide:
   a. How did your mother handle conflict?
   b. What did you have to do to get what you wanted as a child?
   c. Which of your peers did your parents most approve of?
   d. What boyish behavior did your family disapprove of in girls?
3. Ask the students to place a check beside the messages that may guide their current behavior.
4. Ask students to share their "femininity" messages out loud with the class and write on the chalkboard an adjective that each message suggests, e.g., "Put others' feelings before your own" = sensitive; "Be careful" = fragile; "Take care of children" = nurturant.
5. Request a pair of volunteers to role play a scene in which one student plays the role of requesting a change in her roommate's behavior. Have the other student play the inconsiderate roommate. However, the student requesting a change must pretend to be a woman who could only be described as possessing all of the traditionally feminine traits listed on the chalkboard.
6. Step 5 may be tried several times with new pairs of volunteers.
7. Discuss the reactions of the volunteers. How did it feel to be restricted into the stereotyped feminine role? What was the reaction of the "roommate" to this style of interaction? What were the reactions of the class? Laughter, pity, disgust? Did the roommate agree to change her behavior? At what cost to the stereotyped woman?

8. Present a mini-lecture summarizing the effects of socialization on assertive behavior. These effects are discussed in the work by Butler (1976) and Phelps and Austin (1975). Finish by describing the importance of developing an assertive belief system.

Activity II: Developing an Assertive Belief System--Personal Rights (Objective 2)

The purpose of this exercise is to encourage participants to become aware of their own personal rights.

1. Ask students to write a list of abstract universal human rights. Allow five minutes for this task. Or duplicate the list of human rights from the appendix of Your Perfect Right (Alberti & Emmons, 1978).

2. Then instruct the students to write a concrete example of how each abstract right applies to their own personal life at this time. For example, "the right to determine one's own life style" could mean "I have the right to wear what I want" or "I can study, eat, sleep, etc., when I want," or "I can wear what I want" without expecting negative sanctions from my family or neighbors.

3. Ask students to share with the class their lists of personal rights. Write these on the board. Then discuss possible consequences of standing up for these rights. Discuss responsibilities that are associated with some of these rights.

4. Present a mini-lecture summarizing the lists of suggested personal rights presented by Alberti and Emmons (1978), Baer (1976), and Smith (1975).

5. Have students save their lists of rights for Activity III.

Activity III: Developing an Assertive Belief System--Irrational Ideas (Objective 2)

The purpose of this activity is to explore the irrational belief system that prevents people from being assertive about their personal rights.

1. Ask the participants to refer to their lists of personal rights. Discuss briefly the concept of how the things people tell themselves about their behavior can act as positive and negative reinforcement--for example, "I will feel better about myself if I study more," or "I feel like such a witch when I get angry." Ask the participants what they tell themselves that prevents them from expressing their rights.

2. Distribute Handout for Activity III-A: "I Know It Isn't True, But . ." (p. 185). Discuss how these basic irrational beliefs may inhibit assertive behaviors, especially numbers 1, 2, 6 and 7. Ask students to give examples of how these beliefs relate to rights they hesitate to assert. Summarize the seven irrational beliefs described in Chapter 6 of The New Assertive Woman (Bloom, Coburn & Pearlman, 1975).

3. Present a mini-lecture summarizing Ellis's rational emotive philosophy as it relates to assertiveness, as described in Lange and Jakubowski (1976, Chapter 5).

4. Distribute Handout for Activity III-B: "It Ain't Necessarily So" (pp.1/187-1/188). After students have read it, ask for a volunteer to give a personal example of a situation in which s/he would like to be more assertive; with suggestions from the class, specify steps A through E.

5. Distribute Handout for Activity III-C: "It Ain't Necessarily So" (pp.1/189-1/190) and ask each student to complete it. Ask if any student had difficulty with this system, especially section D. If so, ask the class for suggestions.

6. Present a mini-lecture summarizing the positive beliefs about assertion presented in Chapter 3 of Responsible Assertive Behavior (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

Activity IV: Behavioral Rehearsal--The Verbal and Nonverbal Message (Objectives 3 and 4)

The purpose of this exercise is to demonstrate the importance of how a message is delivered, and the usefulness of group feedback.

1. Ask the participants if one of them will suggest a scene in which it is difficult for her or him to be assertive. Request a pair of volunteers to role play the scene aggressively. Explain that the class should observe the nonverbal aspects of the aggressive behavior. It will probably be helpful to ask the volunteers to exaggerate their behavior. Tape the role play. Following the two- to three-minute scene, ask the entire class to specify which behaviors made the scene look aggressive. Replay the videotape several times, if necessary.

2. Repeat the above activity, using a student to portray, instead, a very inhibited person.

3. Present a mini-lecture describing the various elements of nonverbal behavior, following the outline in the narrative.

4. Ask for volunteers to role play an assertive scene. Direct a few class members to watch for eye contact, a few to posture, a few to gesture, etc. After the scene, ask each group for feedback. Use the videotape to check for accuracy. Role play more scenes as time permits.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What nonassertive traits are reinforced by socialization into the traditional female role?
2. In what situations are women encouraged to be assertive?
3. What childhood messages inhibit assertive behavior in women?
4. Describe the psychological theory on which assertiveness training is based.
5. Define nonassertive, assertive, and aggressive behavior.
6. List ten specific assertive rights.
7. Using Transactional Analysis terminology, describe three nonassertive scripts.
8. Give examples of irrational beliefs that prevent women from being assertive.
9. Give examples of positive beliefs regarding assertion.
10. Describe the nonverbal components of assertive behavior.
11. What is the importance of constructing a hierarchy of assertive situations?
12. Describe the components of behavioral rehearsal.

Handout for Activity III-A

I KNOW IT ISN'T TRUE, BUT . . .

SEVEN BASIC IRRATIONAL IDEAS*

1. I must be loved or approved by every significant person in my life.
2. I must be thoroughly competent in all respects in order to be worthwhile.
3. Some people are bad and should be blamed and punished for their villainy.
4. It is catastrophic when things are not the way I want them to be.
5. Human unhappiness is externally caused; I have no control over my emotions.
6. It is easier to avoid than to face life's difficulties and self-responsibilities.
7. One's past history is an all-important determiner of one's present behavior, and because something once strongly affected one's life, it should always affect it.

The ABC of RET*

A	Activating (A) event
B	The individual's irrational Belief (iB)
C	The upsetting emotional Consequence (C)
D	Disputing (D) irrational beliefs
E	New and better functioning Effects (E) (cognitive Effects (cE) and behavior Effects (bE).

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*Taken from Humanistic psychotherapy: The rational-emotive approach by Albert Ellis, Ph.D. © 1973 by The Institute for Rational Living. Used by permission of The Julian Press, a division of Crown Publishers.

Handout for Activity III-B

IT AIN'T NECESSARILY SO: A GUIDE FOR COGNITIVE RESTRUCTURING*

A. Describe an Activity or situation in which you want to be more assertive. Specifically identify your goal, i.e., what you want to accomplish.

Example:

> I want to go to school which means I won't be home during the day to do the housework, cooking, shopping and errands for the family. I want my husband and children to share those chores with me.

B. What are the negative Beliefs, i.e., thoughts, that come to your mind as you think about acting assertively in the situation?

Example:

> I'm responsible for the house, meals, etc., and if I ask them to help me I'll be neglecting my family duties. Besides that, the house won't be as clean and nobody in the family cooks as well as I.

C. What are the negative Consequences, i.e., feelings, of your irrational beliefs?

Example:

> I resent having to do all the chores while going to school. I also feel guilty about neglecting my family responsibilities. And, too, I'm afraid my husband and children will be angry with me if I ask them to do my chores.

D. Dispute, i.e., challenge, the irrational beliefs by asking yourself the following questions:

First challenge:

a. Are the beliefs 100 percent true? Are they really facts?
b. Will the consequences you fear definitely happen?
c. What do you know about yourself or other people that says this may not happen?

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Example:

> Perhaps I'm not responsible for all the household chores. Maybe the house doesn't have to be clean all the time, or the meals quite as excellent. My family has been supportive in the past when I've wanted to participate in community activities.

Second challenge:

a. Could I handle the negative consequences if they actually did occur?
b. If the consequences did occur, does it make me or the other people involved bad or worthless?
c. Realistically, what does it make me or the other people?

Example:

> My family might be upset and even angry, especially at first. However, we have solved other problems together. If they are angry, it doesn't mean that they are bad or that I've asked for something unreasonable. After all, we are individuals in a family with different needs and expectations which have to be worked out.

E. What are some more rational, positive effects or thoughts about the situation?

Example:

> We all live in the house; therefore, the chores which keep the entire household functioning are the responsibility of the entire family rather than mine alone. I am not neglecting my family by asking them to share in those chores which affect all of us. I have other qualities I want to develop besides those involved in running a household smoothly.

Handout for Activity III-C

IT AIN'T NECESSARILY SO: A GUIDE FOR COGNITIVE RESTRUCTURING*

A. Describe an *Activity* or situation in which you want to be more assertive. *Specifically* identify your goal, i.e., what you want to accomplish.

B. What are the negative *Beliefs*, i.e., *thoughts*, that come to your mind as you think about acting assertively in the situation?

C. What are the negative *Consequences*, i.e., *feelings*, of your irrational beliefs?

D. *Dispute*, i.e., *challenge*, the irrational beliefs by asking yourself the following questions:

First challenge:
  a. Are the beliefs 100 percent true? Are they really fact?
  b. Will the consequences I fear definitely happen?
  c. What do I know about myself or other people that says this may not happen?

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[*] Adapted from the following:

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Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. *Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers*. Champaign, Illionois: Research Press, 1976. Used by permission.

Second challenge:

a. Could I handle the negative consequences if they actually did occur?
b. If the consequences did occur, does it make me or the other person involved bad or worthless?
c. Realistically, what does it make me or the other person?

E. What are some more rational, positive effects or thoughts about the situation?

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UNIT 2

SEX-BIAS IN INTEREST MEASUREMENT

Tedd Stephens
Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

"Sex Bias in Interest Measurement" is a course module designed to supplement relevant courses in educational psychology, guidance, or psychology. The technical nature of the material restricts its use to upper-level undergraduate or, preferably, graduate-level courses. This module would apply well to courses dealing with interest testing or the use of interest tests in career counseling. The module might be appropriate for a workshop setting, although some of the learning activities will not be as manageable in this setting.

The module is comprised of four lessons. Lesson 1 provides an introduction to test theory and bias in tests. This lesson provides a brief introduction/review of some psychometric concepts. The module, however, presupposes at least a passing familiarity with psychometric theory. Lesson 2 introduces the construct of "interests" and discusses how interests are assessed. Beginning with Lesson 3 there is an assumption that students will have some background in the areas of sex roles and the psychology of women. Lesson 3 focuses on the various issues associated with sex bias in interest measurement. Lesson 4 considers the directions necessary to provide for more sex-fair interest measurement. The final lesson also discusses the need for better counselor education and retraining to remedy some of the problems associated with bias in counseling.

Included within each lesson are suggested learning activities designed to help students relate more closely to the material presented. These activities provide concrete experiences which should assist students in grasping this rather technical material.

An extensive literature review and accompanying bibliography are provided. Basic readings have been noted for each lesson. Numerous other readings are available for facilitators and/or students desiring a more in-depth knowledge of specialized areas or topics.

OUTLINE

1. Lesson 1: Measurement & Bias in Measurement
    - A. Reliability
    - B. Validity
    - C. Test bias

2. Lesson 2: Interests & Interest Measurement
    - A. Interest as a construct
    - B. Interest test development
    - C. Interest testing and career theory
    - D. Research on interests
    - E. Women's interests

3. Lesson 3: Critical Issues Associated with Sex Bias in Interest Measurement
    - A. Defining sex bias
    - B. Inventory rationales
    - C. Sex-role socialization
    - D. Two hypotheses relating interests and satisfaction
    - E. One form versus two forms
    - F. Scales
    - G. Norms
    - H. Inventory language
    - I. Other special concerns

4. Lesson 4: Increasing Sex Fairness in Interest Measurement
    - A. The use of tests
    - B. Guidelines for eliminating sex bias
    - C. Efforts to eliminate sex bias in inventories
    - D. Sex-balanced inventory development
    - E. Rasch model of item analysis
    - F. Changes in career counseling

LESSON 1

MEASUREMENT & BIAS IN MEASUREMENT

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to define reliability as it relates to test theory.
2. To be able to identify methods used in assessing test reliability.
3. To be able to define the three basic types of validity: predictive, content, and construct.
4. To be able to distinguish between concurrent and predictive validity.
5. To be able to identify the basic characteristics of test bias.
6. To be able to discuss the issues associated with separate sex norms on aptitude tests.

NARRATIVE

Some basic concepts in test theory, such as reliability and validity, arise in readings and discussions associated with sex bias and interest testing. Since bias issues extend beyond sex bias in interest measurement and into educational measurement in general, a basic review of these concepts follows. For a more complete treatment of these concepts in test theory, the reader is referred to one or more of the references cited in the narrative.

Reliability

Magnusson (1966) indicated that validity and reliability represent two aspects of dependability in relation to testing procedures. Reliability, one aspect of dependability, is a necessary component for validity. Reliability can be thought of as consistency throughout a series of measurements (Cronbach, 1970), or accuracy of a measuring instrument (Magnusson, 1966), and concerns the extent to which measurements are repeatable (Nunnally, 1967). Cronbach (1970) has indicated a preference for the term "generalizability" when discussing reliability. Generalizability refers to the extent to which observed scores for individuals are generalizable or accurate in relation to some uniform score.

The theory of reliability assumes that an obtained score is the sum of two components: the true score and the error score. A true score is estimated by the score an individual receives on a test. A person's score on a measuring instrument is an estimate of that person's true score for that particular instrument. Repeated efforts to measure some trait or quality generally produce different values. This may be considered a result of error scores which may in turn be due to chance or random errors (Magnusson, 1966).

A number of methods are available for determining the reliability of a testing instrument. A correlation coefficient, known as the reliability coefficient, may be calculated when comparing scores on the same test given on two different occasions (retest method) or when comparing scores on alternate forms of a test. Other procedures may be used in conjunction with one of these two methods. One of these, an estimate of reliability, can be calculated by a formula referred to as coefficient alpha. Coefficient alpha is helpful in assessing measurement error based on internal consistency, where the latter is essentially the average correlation among the test items (Nunnally, 1967).

Validity

Reliability is a necessary component for validity, the other aspect of dependability associated with testing procedures (Magnusson, 1966). A measuring instrument may be considered valid if it measures what it is intended to measure (Nunnally, 1967). Validity is the quality that most affects the value of a test (Cronbach, 1970).

In order to estimate the validity of a test, it is necessary to initially identify the criterion variable--that trait which the test will attempt to measure. Generally, a correlation coefficient known as the coefficient of validity is used in estimating validity. This coefficient expresses the extent of relationship, or correlation, between both test data and data used as indexes for scores obtained for individuals on the criterion variable (Magnusson, 1966). The higher the value of the validity coefficient, the greater the indication that the test is measuring the right thing. A decision maker will be more capable of making a good decision, based upon test results, if the test is giving the kind of information that is sought (Cronbach, 1970).

Three basic types of validity are generally identified: predictive validity, content validity, and construct validity. A test may be designed to predict or estimate some important form of behavior referred to as the criterion, hence the term predictive validity. The magnitude of relationship, or correlation, between prediction test scores and criterion scores determines the extent to which a test possesses predictive validity. The value of this correlation is represented by the validity coefficient (Nunnally, 1967). To assess the predictive validity of a college entrance exam, an investigator might determine the extent of relationship between actual test scores and grade point average (the criterion) upon graduation from college for individuals who have taken the exam.

Concurrent validity is a category of predictive validity. With respect to concurrent validity, the time of collecting both test data and criterion data are roughly simultaneous. In assessing predictive validity, the time lapse between test data and criterion data may extend from months to years (Cronbach, 1970).

Content validity is a form of validity representing the extent to which test items are representative of the content and objectives of a topic (e.g., a psychology course). Content validity is not expressed as a validity coefficient (Magnusson, 1966). Rather, two major standards insure content validity: a representative collection of items and appropriate methods used in constructing the test. Face validity is a term that is often associated with measurement devices. It concerns the extent to which an instrument appears to measure what it is intended to measure. Therefore, face validity can be considered an aspect of content validity (Nunnally, 1967).

The concept of construct validity becomes helpful when a test is designed to measure traits for which external criteria are not available (Magnusson, 1966). A construct is a variable that is abstract rather than concrete, such as intelligence, fear, anxiety, or interests. A construct essentially represents a hypothesis associated with the interrelationship of a variety of behaviors (Nunnally, 1967). The extent to which a test is determined to measure some theoretical construct or trait reflects the construct validity of that test.

One method used in assessing construct validity involves administering different tests assumed to measure the same construct to the same sample of individuals. The results can be examined by correlational analyses. To the extent that substantial positive intercorrelations are found, evidence of construct validity is obtained. As an example, independent ratings could be obtained for the variable "general adjustment" based upon results obtained from three different projective tests. If sufficient positive correlations are found, the extent of construct validity in the ratings for general adjustment obtained from the different methods can be assessed (Magnusson, 1966).

Another method for assessing construct validity involves correlating a new test measuring some construct with similar earlier tests designed to measure the same construct. If the correlations are moderately high but not too high, a sign of needless duplication, this evidence suggests reasonable construct validity (Anastasi, 1976). Various other techniques are utilized in assessing construct validity, but considering these is beyond the scope of this discussion.

Test Bias

A biased test is generally construed as one which systematically produces results that are unfair to some group (Green, 1975). The group under consideration is generally defined on the basis of race, sex, nationality, or some cultural dimension. A biased test is likely to be used unfairly since it is measuring different things for different groups. Such a test can only be used fairly if it is used differently with each of the groups concerned.

The issue of test bias must necessarily lead to a discussion of validity. Green (1975) has considered bias and fairness in the context of each of three general uses for tests: selection, placement, and description. He concluded that only by exploring a test's construct validity is it possible to adequately demonstrate that a test is not biased.

The concern of test bias originated with ability tests, especially those measuring IQ (Tittle, 1975). Cronbach (1975) traced the long history of controversy in the literature over what is being measured by intelligence tests. Some claimed innate abilities were being assessed, but others disagreed. In the late 1940's one sociologist registered concern that existing tests were underestimating the abilities of working-class children (Davis, 1949).

There has been a growing concern about bias in achievement tests. Tittle (1974) revealed evidence of bias when the test content of eight common achievement tests was examined for indicators of sex-role stereotyping. Male nouns and pronouns were used more frequently. Women were portrayed primarily as either homemakers or as individuals in pursuit of hobbies.

In the development of achievement tests, greater attention has been invested in examining content validity as opposed to construct validity. To assume greater "fairness," Tittle (1975) suggested a need to consider both kinds of validity. She provided a set of procedures designed to insure test fairness with respect to specific subgroups within a test population. These procedures addressed various stages in test development, such as test specifications, item writing, item selection and analysis, and experimental and correlational studies.

Gold (1977) examined the issue of using separate-sex norms as opposed to combined-sex norms on the Differential Aptitude Test (DAT). The DAT is a multiple aptitude battery yielding scores on such factors as abstract reasoning, spelling, clerical speed, and the like. She discussed the following issues in relation to the DAT: the egalitarian goals and objectives of modern education, the evidence that sex is not the only, and certainly not the greater, variable for score differentiation (e.g., socioeconomic status showed greater mean score differences on DAT subtests), and the legal concern for using tests in a manner that leads to differential employment treatment. She reached the conclusion that using separate-sex norms can perpetuate social stereotypes by reinforcing the notion of different aptitudes and abilities for males and females. Furthermore, introducing differences associated with traditional score variations between the sexes may promote biases and limitations of expectations held by counselors. Gold's conclusion favoring combined-sex norms echoed a contention of Bauernfeind (1956), who expressed a preference for developing and publishing norms for combined sexes on psychological/educational tests.

Such basic concepts in test theory as reliability and validity are very much a part of any discussion associated with bias in measurement. The reader, in considering some of the basic readings for this lesson, can perhaps better appreciate the need for a more clear understanding of such concepts. Subsequent lessons will focus on a particular area of measurement, interest measurement, and issues related to bias in this area.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read entries in the bibliography marked with an asterisk. Review the objectives and learning activities and select those congruent with the goals of your class. Assign student readings. Xerox the entire narrative for this lesson and distribute to the class. Be certain to have access to a chalkboard.

Activity I: Definition of Terms (Objective 1)

Duplicate copies of the Handout: "Defining the Terms" (p. 2/13).

Related Readings:

Readings of narrative for Lesson 1

Activity II: Interest Assessment of the Class Participants

1. Have career interest inventories on hand and determine the places within the vicinity of your campus where students may take them. Develop a list of the inventories that are available, especially those that contain psychometric information, e.g., reliability and validity data.
2. Contact these offices and agencies to make arrangements for the students to take the interest inventories.
3. Gather samples of anonymous test profiles to be used in class discussion of profile results.

Related Readings:

No specific readings are required for this activity.

Activity III: Examining Tests for Bias (Objective 5)

Obtain copies of manuals or test forms, or both, of various ability and achievement tests for students to use in the group assessment.

Related Readings:

Green, D. R. What does it mean to say a test is biased? *Education and Urban Society*, 1975, 8(1), 33-51.

Tittle, C. K. Fairness in educational achievement testing. *Education and Urban Society*, November 1975, 86-103.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Defining the Terms

The purpose of this activity is to help the students learn or review some of the test terminology used in the literature that is included in this unit.

1. Distribute Handout: "Defining the Terms" (p. 2/13) and allow time for its completion.
2. After students have completed the quiz, conduct a brief discussion on any of the definitions that were unclear.

Activity II: Interest Assessment of the Class Participants

The purpose of this activity is to give the student the experience of actually taking one or more interest inventories; their results will be involved in activities suggested in subsequent lessons.

1. Discuss with class participants the various sources within the vicinity of the campus where interest inventories are available, e.g., Student Counseling Center, State Employment Service, or State Vocational School.
2. Provide students with a list of the various interest inventories that are available and direct them to complete two of the inventories immediately. It is suggested that students take one occupational inventory and one basic interest inventory since both will be used in the following lessons.

   It is important to complete this task as soon as possible. In the presentation of the next three lessons, students will be expected to incorporate this learning experience into several activities.

   The following is a suggested list of possible inventories that may be available [illegible] locale:

   a. Occupation [illegible]
      Kuder [illegible]est Survey Form DD (Kuder, 1971)
      Strong-C[illegible]entory (Campbell, 1974)

   b. Basic interest [illegible]
      ACT Interest Inventor[illegible]can College Testing Program, 1974)
      Kuder General Interest Survey Form E (Kuder, 1971)
      Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (D'Costa, Weinefordner, Odgers, and Koons, 1970)
      Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1971)

3. Encourage students to bring score reports to class when results become available. This should be done on a volunteer basis only, as some students may be unwilling to share their profiles in class. Confidentiality with respect to test/inventory results has both ethical and legal ramifications.

   Report forms may be used by each student to gain familiarity with the information contained and to serve as a stimulus for future discussions on the similarities and differences between the inventories. For those students not bringing their own profile, the facilitator can make the anonymous profiles previously gathered available to them in class.

4. Conduct class discussion on the similarities and differences that the students observed between the inventories.
   a. What directions did the career counselor or test administrator initially provide for the student?
   b. What were the differences observed by the students in the written directions on the inventories? For example, did the inventories request information in the form of "Would you like to sew or read?" or "I enjoy sewing more than reading"? The first inventory questions the student's interest in experiencing a certain activity. The other asks the student to react to a certain experience.
   c. An important consideration in this activity is that students are only carrying out one aspect of the career counseling process--taking inventories. This is a limitation that should be discussed and which will become more obvious upon completing some of the activities in subsequent lessons.

Activity III: Examining Tests for Bias (Objective 3)

The purpose of this activity is to raise the consciousness of the students as to the potential for bias in the content of educational tests.

1. Obtain copies of manuals and/or test forms for various ability and achievement tests appropriate for elementary use (e.g., Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Revised).

2. Divide into small groups of two or three members.

3. Have the groups assess specific items that seem to be sex appropriate or sex biased and tally the results. Work groups may like to tally items that are more favorable toward males or females.

4. Discuss the findings of the individual groups.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Identify three basic types of validity and distinguish between them.
2. Identify the two components constituting an individual's obtained score on a test.
3. What is represented by the validity coefficient? What does a high value for a validity coefficient imply?
4. According to Green (1975), what characterizes a biased test?
5. How might using separate-sex norms on psychological/educational tests contribute to sustaining social stereotypes?

Handout for Activity I

DEFINING THE TERMS

Match the appropriate term from test theory with each statement or phrase given.

______1. extent of relationship between test data and data on the criterion variable

______2. trait which a test attempts to measure

______3. test data and criterion data gathered simultaneously

______4. test instrument appears to measure what is intended

______5. consistency throughout a series of measurements

______6. extent to which test items are representative of content and objectives of a topic

______7. test data and criterion data gathered a year apart

______8. extent to which test scores are accurate compared with universal score

______9. a helpful concept for a test measuring traits for which no external criteria are available

A. Reliability

B. Coefficient of Validity

C. Content Validity

D. Generalizability

E. Construct Validity

F. Criterion Variable

G. Predictive Validity

H. Face Validity

I. Concurrent Validity

Answers: 1-B, 2-F, 3-I, 4-H, 5-A
6-C, 7-G, 8-D, 9-E.

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*Basic reading for this lesson.

LESSON 2

INTERESTS & INTEREST MEASUREMENT

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to identify the components of an interest inventory and state the primary use of these tests.
2. To be able to compare and contrast empirical keying and homogeneous keying as different methods used in interest test development.
3. To be able to list the basic personality types identified in Holland's (1973) theory of careers and to identify at least five jobs applicable to each.
4. To be able to discuss the two variables that are recognized as most important to the stability of interest inventories.
5. To be able to explain the term "circular configuration" as it relates to interest theory.

NARRATIVE

An introduction to the construct of interests and how interests are measured will be helpful to further the understanding of some of the issues associated with sex bias in interest measurement. A rather extensive literature on interest measurement has evolved. However, only a limited amount of this literature has dealt with women's interests.

Interest as a Construct

Nunnally (1967) identified "sentiment" as a term for all forms of likes and dislikes. He divided sentiments into three overlapping groups: interests, values, and attitudes. Interests, the focus of this discussion, may be defined as preferences for particular activities. Strong (1958) viewed interests as associated with activities, as being either liked or disliked. Cole and Hanson (1975) conceptualized interests as "a constellation of likes and dislikes leading to consistent patterns or types of behavior" and perhaps involving "some mix of genetic and environmental causes" (p. 4). With respect to vocational interests, Berdie (1944) concluded that, like personality, vocational interests are a complex phenomena. He suggested that family influence was among the most prominent of the determinants of interests.

The measurement of interests is often conducted to predict some types of job satisfaction (Cole & Hanson, 1975). A link between satisfaction and interests has been postulated, but this link remains unclear. Strong (1958), however, considered these two constructs as distinct entities, each with particular characteristics.

Interest inventories have been used principally in the fields of vocational/educational guidance. The development of interest inventories has been prompted largely by the concerns for vocational selection and classification (Anastasi, 1976). These instruments are essentially lengthy questionnaires using a self-report technique. Such inventories are standardized and permit comparing a person's responses to those of a reference group, for example, a group of individuals in a particular occupation (Cronbach, 1970). Interest inventories are designed to aid in career exploration, and an inventory that fails to stimulate such exploration is probably of little value (Sharf, 1974).

Interest Test Development

Three basic approaches have been used in constructing interest inventories: empirical keying, homogeneous keying, and logical keying. Keying essentially refers to the development of scoring keys used in the scoring procedure of interest inventories. Empirical keying and homogeneous keying have been used much more frequently than logical keying has and will be discussed here.

Empirical keying (or criterion keying) involves administering a questionnaire to successful members of a particular occupation and comparing the interest pattern of these individuals with that of a sample representative of the general population. A weighting procedure is developed by which items are judged as indicative or not indicative of likes and dislikes of persons in particular occupations (Cronbach, 1970). This procedure was used in developing the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). A similar procedure led to the development of the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (OIS), although a general reference group was not used.

Homogeneous keying involves a factor analysis of single items to determine clusters of interests. The items are then organized into descriptive scales which can be used in vocational and educational guidance. Any predictions, though, are based more upon inference than on evidence of predictive validity (Cronbach, 1960). Homogeneous scales appear on the Minnesota Vocational Interest Inventory, the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) and the theme scales of the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) (Harmon, 1975).

Interest inventory items generally refer to occupational names or occupational activities. As an example, on the SCII, an individual may respond "Like," "Indifferent," or "Dislike" to the item "biologist." Item content associated with school subjects, personal characteristics, and non-occupational activities is found less frequently on interest inventories (Harmon, 1975).

Interest Testing and Career Theory

Several basic theoretical approaches embrace the primary career development theories. The trait-factor approach is the oldest and assumes that a match of an individual's abilities and interests with vocational opportunities is plausible. In fact, the vocational-interest testing movement was spawned from this approach. It led to the development of such instruments as the Strong Vocational Interest Bank (SVIB), the Kuder Preference Record, and two popular aptitude tests, the Differential Aptitude Test and the Guilford-Zimmerman Aptitude Survey (Osipow, 1973).

Holland (1973) proposed a theory of careers that encompasses six basic personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. A profile or personality pattern can be generated for individuals by comparing their attributes with each of the basic types delineated. The personality types can be conceptualized as a circular configuration or hexagonal model with a different personality type located at each point of the hexagon.

The theory results from an attempt to answer a variety of vocational questions dealing with personality/environmental characteristics leading to (1) vocational choice, satisfaction, achievement, or alienation; (2) stability with regard to the kind and level of work performed; and (3) change or instability with regard to the kind and level of work performed. In addition, Holland's theory seeks to explain why some people make vocational choices congruent with their own assessments, why some do not, and why others remain undecided (Holland & Gottfredson, 1976).

Holland's theory is an outgrowth of the personality approach to career development (Osipow, 1973). Holland (1973) has enumerated a number of principles that are relevant to his theory. He has viewed vocational choice as an expression of personality and, accordingly, considers interest inventories to be personality inventories. Assuming that members of a given vocation possess similar personalities and histories, these individuals can be expected to respond similarly to many situations and problems.

Various descriptive elements of Holland's theory have been experimentally validated (Osipow, 1973). For example, Lucy (1976) reported substantial stability of the personality types over a 35-year interval in a study assessing concurrent validity. This stability was noted in a sample of both men and women. Uniform validation of the personality types and their relationships to career memberships and goals has not yet been obtained. The theory has been formally integrated into such instrumentation and classification systems as the SCII and the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) (Osipow, 1973). Hansen and Johansson (1972) developed six scales for the women's form of the SVIB that followed the Holland models. These scales offered a number of potential benefits, one of which involved an additional index of individual preference in relation to occupations.

Research on Interests

Scores on interest inventories have been found to be moderately predictive of the occupations that people will enter, of satisfaction with occupations, and even of changes in occupations. Interests tend to remain reasonably stable over periods of ten or more years, beginning in the developmental period of late adolescence (Nunnally, 1967). Johansson and Campbell (1971) found that the stability of the SVIB was stronger under the conditions in which older subjects were tested and then retested at shorter time intervals.

Various longitudinal studies related to interest inventories have appeared in the literature. Zytowski (1974) found that 53 percent of a sample of individuals tested 25 years earlier with the Kuder Preference Record-B were in occupations consistent with their highest scores. Thirty-two percent were in occupations consistent with their lowest scores. The former group, however, reported significantly greater job satisfaction.

A ten-year longitudinal study using the Social Worker and Lab Technician scales of the SVIB was conducted (Harmon, 1969). The accuracy of prediction for commitment to social service with the Social Worker scale was 70 percent. The accuracy of prediction for commitment to science occupations with the Lab Technician scale was 60 percent. These results pertained to women who were judged to be committed to careers.

Dolliver and Will (1977) compared differences in predictability for the Vocational Card Sort (expressed interests) and the SVIB (inventoried interests). Each revealed essentially the same accuracy of prediction, about 50 percent, ten years after the initial testing. This suggests that any difference between expressed and inventoried interests may be negligible, at least with respect to predictability.

Nelson (1971) attempted to differentiate between a group of individuals whose expressed and inventoried interests were congruent and a group whose expressed and inventoried interests were not congruent. He endeavored unsuccessfully to distinguish the groups on 13 different variables. He concluded that differentiating such groups might be possible on variables other than those he examined.

It has been noted that there is a current trend in the interest inventory literature to examine the effects of these inventories on those who take them (Holland, Takai, Gottfredson, & Hanau, in press; Takai & Holland, in press). Zytowski (1977) reported the effects on high school students who received results from the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (OIS). The students appeared to learn more about themselves as a result of taking the OIS, in that they were better able to estimate the ranks of certain scales on their inventories. Administration of the OIS did not necessarily result in increased certainty of and satisfaction with vocational choice, nor was any additional information-seeking behavior noted. Students who expressed a greater interest in taking the inventory and receiving the results evidenced a greater gain in certainty and satisfaction with their planned occupations.

Holland (1975) noted previously that the Self-Directed Search (SDS) has been found to have desirable effects on boys and girls, men and women. Holland et al. (in press) examined the effects of the SDS on high school girls. It was hypothesized that the contributions associated with the SDS, such as offering a large number of vocational options, structuring information, and increasing self-understanding, would benefit users of this inventory. Although the hypotheses were not confirmed in this study, the researchers concluded that there are positive effects of the SDS, resulting primarily from the numerous occupational options considered, and secondarily from its structure.

Takai and Holland (1978) studied the relative influence of the Vocational Card Sort (VCS), the Self-Directed Search (SDS), and a new vocational treatment, the Vocational Exploration and Insight Kit (VEIK). The latter integrates the VCS, the SDS and its instructional booklet, and an "action plan." The influence of the VEIK failed to surpass the influence of its various components, in opposition to what may have been expected. A by-product of this research suggested that a structured inventory (SDS) and its interpretive booklet appeared to stimulate consideration of a greater variety of vocational alternatives than an unstructured inventory (VCS) with the high school girls sampled.

Women's Interests

In an early study (Crissy & Daniel, 1939), it was found that a factor analysis of the SVIB given to women revealed factors that were quite discrepant from those that had been reported for men. Harmon (1967) found that use of an item selection and weighting system different from the original one increased the number of higher scores on the SVIB. She concluded that some of the heterogeneity that had been reported with respect to measuring women's interests may have been due to the scoring system. The developers of the inventory had perhaps failed to weight only the more valid items.

Cole and Hanson (1971) examined the internal structural relationship of the scales from a number of interest inventories that had been administered to samples of men. A circular configuration similar to the one originally proposed by Roe and also by Holland (see p. 2/19) was found. Likewise, Cole (1973) discovered a similar structure associated with the measurement of women's interests on several interest inventories. These findings have suggested that it is plausible to provide women with information about a wider variety of occupations once their areas of interests have been identified.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography and carefully review the narrative. Use the narrative to present a lecturette about the topics of this lesson. As the facilitator, you may find it helpful to read other selected entries in the bibliography. Review the objectives and activities for this lesson and select those that are congruent with your goals for the lesson. Be certain to have access to a chalkboard. Assign student readings.

Activity I: Generating Discussion Questions

1. Review the narrative written for the lesson.
2. Prior to the class session, ask students to read related readings identified in the narrative and the bibliography.
3. Ask students to generate discussion questions from their readings and record these questions on 3" x 5" index cards.

Related Readings:

Cole, N. S. On measuring the vocational interests of women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1973, *20*(2), 105-112.

Cole, N. S., & Hanson, G. R. Impact of interest inventories on career choice. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), *Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement*. Department of HEW, National Institute of Education, Spring, 1975.

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Activity II: Holland's Typology (Objective 3)

1. Duplicate copies of Holland's personality types (p. 2/39) and distribute to students prior to this class session.

2. Copies of the book Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers (Holland, 1973) should be placed on reserve in the library for students. Chapter 2 is particularly related to the objectives of this lesson.

3. Review and summarize the content in Chapter 2 of Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers (Holland, 1973).

4. Duplicate copies of the Handout: "Personality Types Exercise" (p. 2/37).

5. Gather enough copies of The Occupations Finder (Holland, 1977) so that there will be at least one for each small group participating in this exercise.

Related Readings:

Holland, J. L. Making vocational choices: A theory of careers Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973, Chapter 2.

Hansen, J. C., & Johansson, C. B. The application of Holland's vocational model to the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for women. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1972, 2, 479-493.

Activity III: The Socialization Factor

No special preparation necessary.

No specific readings are required for this activity.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Generating Discussion Questions

The purpose of this activity is to promote pertinent discussion of the content of this lesson and to encourage questions students may have.

1. Ask students to bring to class three to five discussion questions relevant to the readings suggested for this unit. Students should also list several comments or statements which serve as responses to each discussion question.

2. Direct students to form small groups of four to six members and alternate from person to person in sharing questions with related statements and comments. Ask each group to designate a facilitator to coordinate the group discussions. Each group should be simultaneously exploring similar topics, e.g., components of interest inventories, empirical keying, and personality types. Summaries of each topic for each group should be shared with the entire class.

3. The following discussion questions may be used for this activity:
   a. How do homogeneous keying and empirical keying differ as methods for developing interest inventories?
   b. How might the studies of effects of interest inventories be expected to benefit both users and developers of such instruments?
   c. Why might the assessment of interests be considered a helpful enterprise?
   d. What is the potential utility of interest inventories in counseling?

Activity II: Holland's Typology (Objective 3)

The purpose of this lesson is to introduce the Holland personality types and to indicate the significance of this model as an occupational system.

1. Distribute to the class members the Handout: "Summary of Holland's Personality Types" (p. 2/39).

2. Prepare and present to the class a mini-lecture on the six personality types: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional. Chapter 2 in Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers (Holland, 1973) and the narrative for this lesson are suggested as sources for the mini-lecture.

3. Distribute copies of the Handout: "Personality Types Exercise" to class members.
    a. Ask students to complete Part A of the exercise. Students are requested to list the career choices which they have considered at various stages of their career/life development.
    b. Provide for each small group The Occupations Finder (Holland, 1977) which was developed for use with The Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1977).
    c. Ask students to use The Occupations Finder to code the career choices listed in Part A of the "Personality Types Exercise."
    d. Ask students to list in the appropriate section of the hexagon the career choices they have previously considered and are currently considering.
    e. After this part of the exercise has been completed, direct students to the Handout: "Summary of Holland's Personality Types" (p. 2/31). Students are to use this summary for descriptions of activities and personal preferences of individuals involved in the specific occupational categories.

Activity III: The Socialization Factor

The purpose of this activity is to have the students systematically examine interest inventories for potential bias. Further, this activity should help impress upon the students the need for careful examination of tests and inventories to be used in educational and counseling settings.

1. Direct the entire class to complete Part B of the "Personality Types Exercise." Ask students to identify the factor(s) which caused them to continue or discontinue the consideration of particular career choices.

2. Ask students to use the fishbowl technique to process this activity: The fishbowl is a technique whereby members of the group sharing certain characteristics, e.g., sex, race, age, form an inner circle and discuss certain issues. Other class members form the outer circle and listen to the discussion; the outer circle is not allowed to contribute or react to the discussion.
    a. Ask the males to form the inner circle and discuss the factors in their life/career development which caused them to consider a certain career direction. Suggested stimulus questions for this activity include:
        1. What caused you to choose this career?
        2. What caused you to reject this choice?
        3. What messages did you receive about the appropriateness or inappropriateness of this career field for a member of your sex?
        4. What was the opinion/reaction of significant persons in your life to these career choices?

    b. Ask the females in the class to form the inner circle while the males act as listeners in the outer circle.
    c. Repeat the process just described for the males.

3. Conduct a summary discussion with the entire class regarding the sex-role socialization experiences which may have differentially influenced the developing career interests of females and males.

   It may be facilitative to have students consider the influencers associated with their career interests, as well as how they might characterize vocations they have considered along a masculine-feminine dimension.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How have interest inventories been used?
2. Explain why the index of stability on an interest inventory for a group of sixteen-year-olds would be expected to be lower than such an index for a group of thirty-year-old individuals.
3. Identify the Holland (1973) basic personality types and briefly indicate the characteristics associated with each.
4. Distinguish between empirical and homogeneous keying as methods used to develop interest inventories.
5. How might the study of effects of interest inventories be expected to benefit both users and developers of such instruments?

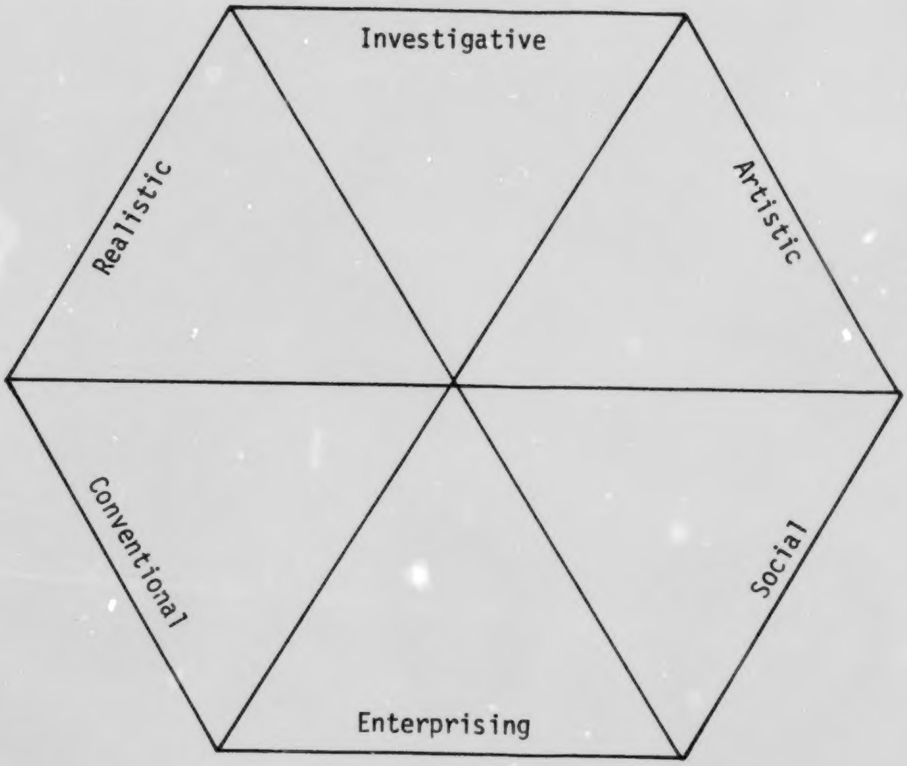
Handout for Activity II

PERSONALITY TYPES EXERCISE*

A. List below the career choices that you considered at various stages of your career/life development, including your current career goal.

B. Next to each career choice identify the factors that caused you to continue or abandon that career path.

	Career Choice	Code	Factor		Career Choice	Code	Factor
1.		( )		6.		( )	
2.		( )		7.		( )	
3.		( )		8.		( )	
4.		( )		9.		( )	
5.		( )		10.		( )	


Investigative
Realistic
Artistic
Conventional
Social
Enterprising

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*From John L. Holland, Making vocational choices: A theory of careers. © 1973. Adapted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Handout for Activity II

SUMMARY OF HOLLAND'S PERSONALITY TYPES*

1. Realistic Type. This person prefers activities involving the manipulation of objects, tools, animals, machines, and the like. This leads to the acquisition of manual, mechanical, electrical, agricultural, and other technical competencies and general deficits in social and educational competencies.

2. Investigative Type: The investigative person has preferences for activities entailing observational, symbolic, systematic, and creative investigation of physical, biological, and cultural phenomena. This type of individual generally is less inclined toward persuasive, social, and repetitive activities. Scientific and mathematical competencies are more readily developed.

3. Artistic Type. Preferences are expressed by the artistic type for ambiguous, free, unsystematized activities involving the manipulation of physical, verbal, or human materials in the creation of art forms or products. Artistic competencies involving language, art, music, drama, and writing are more likely to develop. Such an individual is not as inclined toward activities that are explicit, systematic, and ordered.

4. Social Type. This person tends to prefer activities that entail a manipulation of others to inform, train, develop, enlighten, or cure. Human relations competencies develop more readily rather than manual and technical competencies. Hence, activities involving tools, materials, and machines are more aversive.

5. Enterprising Type. The enterprising type demonstrates more of a preference for activities that entail a manipulation of others in order to achieve economic gains or organizational goals. Leadership, interpersonal, and persuasive competencies tend to develop, whereas there is a deficit in scientific competencies.

6. Conventional Type. The person identified as a conventional type will tend to prefer activities that involve explicit, ordered, and systematic manipulation of data. Such activities as keeping records, filing, and reproducing materials; organizing written and numerical data; and operating business and data processing machines will be preferred to ambiguous, exploratory, free, or unsystematized kinds of activities.

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*Summarized from John L. Holland, Making vocational choices: A theory of careers, © 1973. Adapted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

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*Basic reading for this lesson.

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LESSON 3

CRITICAL ISSUES ASSOCIATED WITH SEX-BIAS IN INTEREST MEASUREMENT

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to distinguish between the terms "sex restrictive" and "sex bias" as they relate to interest inventories.
2. To be able to explain the two predominant rationales that have been used in interest inventory development.
3. To be able to cite evidence from at least one study that sex-role socialization affects occupational choice.
4. To be able to distinguish the two hypotheses offered by Cole and Hanson (1975) concerning the relationship between interests and occupational satisfaction.
5. To be able to explain the differential importance of predictive validity to criterion and homogeneous scales.
6. To be able to identify at least two reasons for altering items to avoid sexist terminology and content on inventories.
7. To be able to identify the potential problems associated with interest inventories with special populations, such as minority group members and re-entry women.

NARRATIVE

This unit presents an historical perspective regarding sex bias in interest inventories. The methods that have been used in developing these inventories have promoted some consequences that have led to bias. Some of the issues that have been raised involve such topics as the use of separate male and female forms, scales, and norms. In addition, there has been concern associated with sexist wording and content on test items.

Defining Sex Bias

The Title IX guidelines of P.L. 92-318 have had considerable impact in educational systems. These guidelines state that a recipient of federal funds, using tests or other appraisal materials in the course of counseling with students, should not use materials that might promote different treatments of students on the basis of sex (Elton & Rose, 1975).

The general lack of consensual agreement for definitions of sex bias and sex fairness has been recognized (Holland, 1975; Gottfredson & Holland, 1977). For example, Harmon (1973) stated that bias in interest testing exists if such tests are used to encourage a person to consider, enter, or reject an occupation or occupational field on the basis of some irrelevant variable such as sex or race. The Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance (AMEG) Commission on Sex Bias in Measurement (1973) held that "sex bias is that condition or provision which influences a person to limit his or her consideration of career opportunities solely on the basis of that person's sex" (p. 172). A similar definition was developed by the National Institute of Education in proposing "Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories." This definition indicated that sex bias is any factor that might influence persons or cause others to limit their consideration of a career solely on the basis of gender ("Guidelines for Assessment," 1975).

As can be seen from the above definitions, the focus is on influencing individuals not to consider an occupational field because of their sex. Prediger and Hanson (1974) endeavored to differentiate the terms "sex restrictive" and "sex bias" to resolve some of the difficulty associated with defining sex bias. They proposed that a sex-restrictive inventory is one which offers a disproportionate distribution of career options suggested to males and females. A sex-restrictive inventory may or may not be biased. If the publisher of such an inventory can substantiate this condition as a necessary concomitant of validity, then bias does not exist. An inventory would, however, be considered sex biased if "the publisher uses or advocates arbitrary rules or procedures . . . for determining which career options will be suggested to an individual" (p. 101).

Inventory Rationales

Since the majority of persons in an occupational field generally have similar interests, one dominant rationale behind some interest tests is the "people-similarity" rationale. The latter assumes that a person liking the same things as people in a particular job will be satisfied with that job. Two widely used inventories, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) and the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (OIS) are based on this rationale (Cole & Hanson, 1975).

The people-similarity rationale relies on a stable socialization process and is tied closely to the past. Inventories developed with this rationale have often lacked occupational scales for women (Cole & Hanson, 1975). Historically, there has been much difficulty in obtaining homogeneous criterion groups of women in numerous occupations, posing a formidable problem in developing criterion-referenced interest tests (Stanfiel, 1970).

The activity-similarity rationale suggests that people liking activities similar to those required by a given job will, in turn, like those job activities and be satisfied with this occupation. Two inventories that were developed partially on the basis of this rationale are the Ohio Vocational Interest Survey and Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS). A major difficulty with this rationale lies in the fact that the female socialization process has caused women to have limited exposure to various activities (Cole & Hanson, 1975).

Sex-Role Socialization

Sex-role socialization, as a process within our culture, has significantly influenced the area of occupational choice. Research with school children demonstrates that sex-role influence is seen very early. Siegel (1973) found distinct sex differences in occupational choice among second-grade students. Among the students sampled, boys chose twice as many occupations as girls chose. Only one of the 29 "most desirable" occupations was mentioned by both boys and girls. Fewer girls than boys actually knew their father's occupation, and none of those who did know selected it for themselves.

Prediger and Cole (1975) cited a recent nationwide study of vocational preferences among high school students. Half of the nation's eleventh-grade girls expressed preferences in only 3 of 25 job families--education and social services, nursing and human care, and clerical/secretarial work. Just 7 percent of their male counterparts expressed preferences for these job families.

Goldberg (1975) noted in her review that studies have demonstrated the existence and stability of sex-role stereotypes in the general public and among professionals. Any alternative in the perception and evaluation of sex roles has been minimal.

Two Hypotheses Relating Interests and Satisfaction

Cole and Hanson (1975) suggested two hypotheses concerning the relationship between interests and occupational satisfaction. The "socialization dominance hypothesis" states that until the socially augmented activity and choice options of males and females broaden during the developmental years, the occupations offering satisfaction will be those consistent with early sex-role socialization. The "opportunity dominance hypothesis" states that as there is a broadening of socially accepted activity and choice options, along with increasing opportunity for non-traditional careers, people will experience satisfaction in more occupational areas irrespective of the effects of early socialization.

Prediger and Cole (1975) noted that current approaches in vocational interest measurement are consonant with either of the above hypotheses. In addition, they noted that validation strategies have been more in line with the socialization approach. Such a procedure offers little more than distributions of interest scores which correspond to preference and employment base rates for men and women. These authors suggested an alternative procedure in keeping with the opportunity approach. Occupational group membership would be used as a criterion. If occupational groups are of equal size, hit rates (successful prediction) would be unaffected by occupational base rates. These base rates only reflect sex-role expectations and/or employer needs.

One Form versus Two Forms

It was noted in the AMEG Commission Report of 1973 that the same person taking both forms of the SVIB often received different profiles. The SVIB has traditionally provided different forms for males and females.

Various investigations have examined the use of both forms of the SVIB with counselees. Laime and Zytowski (1963) found a median correlation of 0.67 between the male and female scales of the SVIB. The female subjects tended to receive higher scores on the men's form for 13 occupational scales that were common to both forms. Higher scores were found on the men's form for all subjects in two other studies (Stanfiel, 1970; Munley, Fretz, & Mills, 1973).

O'Shea and Harrington (1974) found essentially similar overall profiles on the men's form of the SVIB in a sample of male and female counselor education students. Johansson and Harmon (1972) concluded that greater similarity than difference exists between the sexes. Differences emerging seemed to be more in line with sex-role stereotypes (Johansson & Harmon, 1972; O'Shea & Harrington, 1974). Perhaps this helps to explain why "career-oriented" women received higher ratings than "less career-oriented" women on the SVIB occupational scales common to both men's and women's blanks (common scales). The "less career-oriented" group obtained higher ratings on the scales appearing only on the women's blank (unique scales) (Munley, Fretz, & Mills, 1973).

Despite some systematic sex differences, Borgen and Helms (1975) determined that a single form of the SVIB was potentially feasible, with respec to validity considerations. A new form of the Strong inventory has been developed. The Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) combines the male and female forms by providing a common pool of items and a common profile. Occupational interest similarities and differences can be studied for males and females at both the item and the scale level (Hansen, 1976).

Scales

Sex differences also exist at the level of scale development. The two basic types of scales are criterion scales (empirical keying) and homogeneous or basic interest scales (homogeneous keying). Each type of scale carries with it distinct problems associated with the concern of sex bias (Johansson, 1975).

With respect to criterion scales, the difference between male and female responses has been a chief issue. Johansson and Harmon (1972) concluded that on the SVIB it would be possible to combine the responses of males and females for given occupations and then to compare these responses on items with responses of a combined-in-general or reference group. Combining responses of males and females would, however, likely diminish the predictive and concurrent validity of criterion scales (Johansson, 1975; Johnson, 1977). It may be preferable to develop criterion groups of males and females for occupational scales. However, this is expensive, time consuming, and difficult in view of the small number of individuals of a given sex represented in some occupations (Harmon, 1975; Johansson, 1975).

Hansen (1976) insightfully submitted that the goals of interest measurement need to be examined prior to selection of a test construction technique. If the major objective is to research female/male differences, then it may be preferable to construct the best scales for each sex. If sex differences are irrelevant, then combined sex scales are preferred--a decision that sacrifices concurrent validity.

The alternative of interpreting opposite-sex scores on single-sex scales has been met wich mixed sentiments. Johansson (1975) has suggested doing so when there is a threat of limiting career options and an appropriate sex criterion sample is not available. Kuder (1970) indicated that masculine scales could be used for women, especially in occupations for which female scales had not been developed or were inadequately developed. An inherent problem arises in that individuals tend to obtain higher scores on an opposite-sex scale (Hansen, 1976; Creaser & Carsello, 1976; Johnson, 1977). Because of this, the AMEG Commission on Sex Bias in Measurement (1973) recommended not reporting any information in preference to reporting misleading information.

In using the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, Creaser and Carsello (1976) have suggested that a counselor might be able to make educated guesses about occupations not scored on the scale corresponding to the sex of the client. This practice is facilitated by the fact that occupations on this inventory are classified according to Holland's categories. Johnson (1977) encouraged placing greater emphasis on the Basic scales or General Occupational Theme scales to identify occupational patterns. He suggested that this may be the best safeguard against misinterpretation of scores on the Occupational scales.

Diamond (1976) noted that scores are reported on all scales for everyone with the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (OIS). Since men and women tend to record certain responses differently regardless of occupation, scores on a given occupation will often differ on male and female norms. Interpretation thus becomes a problem. One check is to examine scores on scales that have been normed on both males and females (e.g., the Lawyer scale). If a woman's score on any of these scales is rather high on both male and female norms, then other high scores on male-normed scales should be given greater consideration.

With regard to homogeneous scales, predictive validity is of less concern. The use of item intercorrelations in developing such scales diminishes some of the problems (e.g., criterion groups) associated with sex bias that arise when criterion scales are developed. Any differential rate of responding on the part of gender is not so great an issue as it is with criterion scales. Norms could be developed based on a general reference sample with males and females equally represented to lessen the impact of sex bias. Raw scores for individuals from this general reference group could be converted to standardized scores to promote score equivalency. Because of differential response frequencies for males and females, separate norm distributions could be provided to allow scores to be interpreted differently according to gender (Johansson, 1975).

Norms

The issue of sex bias surrounding the use of norms with interest inventories has been controversial. As the reader may recall from Lesson 1, Gold (1977) favored the use of combined-sex norms on aptitude tests. Harmon (1975) indicated that the use of separate norms on interest inventories is psychometrically defensible, but the practical meaning is obscure. Interpreting high scores on scales normed for one sex does not allow for a comparison against normative scores for the other sex--information that might be helpful in counseling.

Diamond (1976) cited the disparity of responses among men and women, even within the same occupation, as the primary reason for separate norms. She suggested that combined norms might really be a disservice unless a sufficient number from the less dominant sex are employed in an occupation and female/male responses are quite similar.

Holland (1975) argued in favor of unnormed inventories such as his own Self-Directed Search (SDS). Norming may reduce the predictive validity of an inventory. Individuals are more able to see how scores were obtained and how these scores relate to occupational outcomes by using the unnormed SDS.

Norms do not confer validity but are used as a basis for meaningful comparison of individuals with some group. The general sex norms for homogeneous scales confer no criterion-related validity, albeit they are often used as if they do. There is a need for supportive evidence before scores on homogeneous scales can be used predictively (Harmon, 1975). In this regard, Cole's findings (1973) on the structure of women's interests can be helpful. It may be that using code types to locate an individual in the occupational structure without reference to norms would be possible from the standpoint of predictive validity (Harmon, 1975).

Norms for interest scales with external criteria can be reasonably assumed to be bias free, if the scales are not sexually biased (Harmon, 1975). Norming is not a prominent concern with the external criterion scales of the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey. The lambda coefficient (similar to a biserial correlation coefficient) was used in determining the degree of similarity between a subject's responses and those of the criterion group (Johansson, 1975).

Inventory Language

Another area of concern in efforts to diminish sex bias in interest measurement has been the language employed. A review by Tanney (1975) evinced little, if any, empirical evidence of the effects of gender-specific labeling with respect to occupations, interests, or activities. She noted that investigations in other disciplines had found an impact, although subtle, on individual's responses about vocationally related interests.

Since Tanney's review, Gottfredson (1976) examined the differential effects of sexist and non-sexist wording among preparatory school females receiving an experimental form of Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI). The results were interpreted as failing to support any claim that the use of sexist wording fosters a strongly biasing effect, in that no preference for endorsing items using non-sexist language existed. Boyd (1976) used a revised version of Holland's Self-Directed Search (SDS) and the standard SDS with female undergraduates. The revised form was designed to eliminate male-oriented terminology from items and instructions and affixed M/F or F/M to occupational titles and terms perceived as gender-specific. Although the results indicated that the standard form was perceived as slightly less equitable, no significant differences were found in performance on the two forms.

Both of the studies just mentioned may well further corroborate the fact that occupational stereotypes are powerful conceptions which are not easily altered. Harmon (1975) has contended that items including "man," "woman," "girl," "boy," or "lady" are sexually biased. Research is needed to determine if a more subtle bias exists with items that might elicit stereotyped images and responses due to cultural biases. Also, evidence is needed to answer the question of which kind of item content (activity versus occupation) is less likely to induce sex-role stereotyping. In any event, the potential hazards of gender specification should be taken into account in the construction of interest measures (Tanney, 1975).

Other Special Concerns

Some differences have been noted in interest patterns for blacks as compared with those of whites. Hager and Elton (1971) found with the SVIB that white male college students demonstrated a greater interest in scientific occupations and blacks showed interest patterns more congruent with teaching and social service. Two other studies (Kimball, Sedlacek, & Brooks, 1973; Doughtie, Chang, Alston, Wakefield, & Yom, 1976) found interest patterns of black college students more in line with social occupations. Kimball et al. (1973) found no difference, however, between blacks and whites in terms of satisfaction with their results on the SDS.

Gump and Rivers (1975) found very little validity data supporting the use of interest inventories with minority women. They suggested that a mismatch may exist between the interest structures of minority women and those of normative and criterion groups used in validating interest inventories. The minority woman may well suffer bias from two standpoints: gender and ethnic membership. Doughtie et al. (1976) noted that the interest pattern of black college students had been found to conform to Holland's hexagonal model. This finding lends still further support to the potential usefulness of this model for various groups of individuals.

Verheyden-Hilliard (1975) discussed the usefulness of interest inventories for mature women, especially re-entry women. Besides being sensitive to the labels associated with occupational titles, she emphasized a need to avoid certain phraseology such as "young people," in an effort to avoid possible age bias.

The issues associated with sex bias in the area of interest measurement are varied, extending into the development of interest inventories--scale and norm development and the language used on items. A considerable amount of research is needed to examine the issues and potential effects of such bias. The next lesson will examine some of the directions being taken, as well as those needed, to remedy some of the problems identified in this lesson.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography and carefully review the narrative. Use the latter to present a lecturette about the topics of this lesson. As the facilitator, having read the narrative, you may opt to read some of the additional sources other than the basic readings. Be certain to have access to a chalkboard. Review the objectives and activities for this lesson. Assign student readings.

Activity I: Identifying Critical Issues

Prepare a mini-lecture from this lesson's narrative.

Related Readings:

Cole, N. S. & Hanson, G. R. Impact of interest inventories on career choice. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1975.

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Prediger, D. J. & Hanson, G. R. The distinction between sex restrictiveness and sex bias in interest inventories. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1974, 7(2), 96-104.

Activity II: Evaluating Interest Inventories

1. Duplicate copies of the Handouts: "Summary of Recommendations" (p. 2/59) and "Inventory Survey Form" (p. 2/61).
2. Collect career interest inventories for students to evaluate. The inventories selected should represent both occupational and basic interest types. Stebbins, Ames, and Rhodes (1975) suggest several inventories from each category:

Occupational Inventories
    Kuder Occupational Interest Survey Form DD (Kuder, 1971)
    Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (Campbell, 1974)
    Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Campbell, 1971)
Basic Interest Inventories
    ACT Interest Inventory (American College Testing Program, 1974)
    Kuder General Interest Survey Form E (Kuder, 1971)
    Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (D'Coster, Winefordner, Odgers & Koons, 1971)
    Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory Basic Interest Scales (Campbell, 1974)
    Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1971)
    Strong Vocational Interest Blank Basic Scales (Campbell, 1974)

(Stebbins, Ames, & Rhodes, 1975, pp. 120-121)

Related Readings:

AMEG Commission report on sex bias in interest measurement. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1973, 6(3), 171-177.

Harmon, L. W. Technical aspects: Problems of scale development, norms, item differences by sex and the rate of change in occupational group characteristics. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1975.

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Tanney, M. F. Face validity of interest measures: Sex-role stereotyping. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1975.

Activity III: Interviewing Career Counselors

1. Develop a list of professionals within your community who administer career interest inventories.

2. Arrange for students to pursue a field survey assignment to interview these individuals; or invite one or two of these professionals to class.

Related Readings:

See reading assignment, Activity I.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Identifying Critical Issues

The purpose of this activity is to introduce to students the critical issues associated with sex bias in interest measurement.

> Develop a mini-lecture on the critical issues associated with interest measurement and present it to the class. An alternative way to present this information is to make the narrative available to students by making copies or by placing the narrative on reserve in the student library.

Activity II: Evaluating Interest Inventories

The purpose of this activity is to provide a means for systematic examination of interest inventories for potential bias. This activity should help students recognize the importance of evaluating tests and inventories to be used in educational and counseling settings.

1. Distribute to students copies of the Handouts: "Inventory Survey Form" (p. 2/61) and the "Summary of Recommendations" (p. 2/59) (Stebbins, Ames, & Rhodes, 1975). Students are introduced to the recommendations at this point in order to become familiar with the issues covered. Further use will be made of these recommendations in Lesson IV.

2. During the first class session for this lesson, collect and make available to students copies of the most widely used occupational and basic interest inventories. Stebbins, Ames, and Rhodes (1975) identified the following types of career interest inventories:
   - Occupational Inventories
     - Kuder Occupational Interest Survey Form DD (Kuder, 1971)
     - Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (Campbell, 1974)
     - Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Campbell, 1971)
   - Basic Interest Inventories
     - ACT Interest Inventory (American College Testing Program, 1974)
     - Kuder General Interest Survey Form E (Kuder, 1971)
     - Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (D'Coaster, Winefordner, Odgers & Koons, 1971)
     - Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory Basic Interest Scales (Campbell, 1974)
     - Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1971)
     - Strong Vocational Interest Blank Basic Scales (Campbell, 1974)

   (Stebbins, Ames & Rhodes, 1975, pp. 120-121)

3. a. In small groups of three to four, ask students to systematically examine the various occupational inventories and basic interest inventories. Students should examine each inventory by responding to the questions on the "Inventory Survey Form."
   b. Share with the entire class the reactions from each group so that everyone will benefit from the evaluations on all inventories investigated.

Activity III: Interviewing Career Counselors

The purpose of this activity is to help students acquire firsthand knowledge of career interest assessment and how such assessment is applied in career counseling.

1. Provide students with a list of names of individuals who administer career interest inventories in the college, university, or community setting.

2. Arrange a field survey assignment and have students contact one of these individuals for an interview. As an alternative to this assignment, professionals in the area who administer career interest inventories may be invited to class to speak to students as a group.
   The following list of career interest measurement questions are representative of areas of concern for the novice in the field:
   a. What is the process you use for career interest assessment? Are career interest inventories introduced to clients during the initial career counseling interview or are inventories made available after other career exploration has been conducted?
   b. What is your technique for interpreting the inventory results to clients?
   c. Do you provide information on norms?
   d. What types of inventories do you use with clients? Why do you prefer the inventories you use?
   e. What are your views on issues related to sex bias in interest inventories?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How have the "people-similarity" and "activity-similarity" rationales for developing interest inventories led to problems in such inventories?

2. Explain the expected impact differences between the "socialization dominance" and "opportunity dominance" hypotheses as they apply to approaches in interest measurement.

3. How might the use of sexist terminology and content on interest inventories contribute to bias?

4. Discuss the considerations a counselor should be aware of when using scores on cross-sex scales with a counselee.

5. What justification is there for using separate-sex norms on interest inventory scales? What justification is there for using combined-sex norms?

Handout for Activity II

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS*

Administering the Inventory

1. Use inventories as part of a total career guidance program.
2. Use a combined inventory form.

Reporting Inventory Results

3. Report scores based on both male and female scales.
    - 3a. Focus on same-sex scales.
    - 3b. Focus on pattern, not level of scores on opposite-sex scales.
    - 3c. Avoid spurious scores on opposite-sex scales.
4. Report scores based on both male and female norm groups.
5. Fill in the appropriate sex code.
6. Report scores based on special norm groups.

Interpreting Inventory Results

7. Identifying broad interest areas.
8. Identifying all occupations within a broad interest area.
9. Orient clients to the potential influence of sex bias on inventory results.
10. Interpret results for special groups carefully.
11. Use all available information.
12. Stimulate exploration.

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*Taken from:

Stebbins, L. B., Ames, N. L. & Rhodes, I. Sex fairness in career guidance: A learning kit. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Abt Associates, 1975.

Handout for Activity II

INVENTORY SURVEY FORM*

I. Inventory Name ______________________________

II. Type of Scales

Basic Interest	________ yes	________ no
Occupational Interest	________ yes	________ no
Both	________ yes	________ no

III. Item Pool

1. Are occupational titles neutral?	________ yes	________ no
2. Is generic he/she used?	________ yes	________ no
3. Are item pools common or separate?	________ common	________ separate
4. If common, are items either gender neutral or balanced in popularity by sex throughout the inventory?	________ yes	________ no

IV. Scale Construction

5. Is there a justification for common or separate scales by sex?	________ justified	________ not justified
6. Are items gender neutral or balanced within each of the common scales? (See 4 above)	________ yes	________ no

V. Score Report

7. Are same scale titles available for both sexes?	________ available	________ unavailable
8. Do both sexes receive the same report form?	________ yes	________ no

NOTE: Look at means for females and males for each scale.

*Taken from:

Stebbins, L. B., Ames, N. L., & Rhodes, I. Sex fairness in career guidance: A learning kit. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Abt Associates, 1975.

VI. Interpretive Information

9. Is there a discussion of the interpretation of sex differences?	____ yes	____ no
10. Are included examples stereotypic?	____ no	____ yes
11. Is the language and tone of the discussions in 9 and 10 (above) sex biased?	____ no	____ yes

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LESSON 4

INCREASING SEX FAIRNESS IN INTEREST MEASUREMENT

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to list at least two positive actions and three general guidelines to reduce sex bias in interest inventories.
2. To be able to indicate the primary changes that have been initiated by publishers and developers of interest inventories, according to the AMEG Commission survey (1973).
3. To be able to list at least two major differences between the original SVIB and the SCII.
4. To be able to identify two advantages of using sex-balanced scales on interest inventories.
5. To be able to cite findings from studies indicative of biased counselor perceptions of female clients.

NARRATIVE

Various guidelines have been proposed for the elimination of sex bias in the field of interest measurement. Recent efforts have been expended toward reconciling some of the concerns and issues which were discussed in the previous unit. Such efforts have involved the development of one form of the original Strong Vocational Interest Blank, research into the development of sex-balanced interest inventories (Rayman, 1976), use of non-sexist language on inventories, and research into techniques of item analysis (Elton & Rose, 1975). To promote sex-fair counseling, methods have been proposed for training, education, and reeducation of counseling personnel.

The Use of Tests

In the recent history of our culture, tests have been assigned a prominent position in diagnostic and evaluative endeavors. As concerns have arisen related to discrimination on the basis of such variables as sex, race, and age, testing practices have come under fire. Linden, Linden, & Bodine (1974) have suggested that tests presently represent our best objective source of relevant information, and their use should not be abandoned. Positive action can lead to the improvement of the quality of measurement instruments. Pressure can be placed upon test developers and publishers to reduce bias. Research endeavors need to be initiated to identify sources and potential sources of bias and to determine the effects of these sources on test scores. It is of paramount importance that test users bear in mind that test scores are only indicators of general trends and not statements of fact. Test scores can only be viewed as statements about individuals and not statements about subgroup membership.

A recent review (Hogan, Desoto, & Solano, 1977) associated with the utility of personality tests prompted the conclusion that personality assessment remains defensible from both intellectual and scientific standpoints. The reviewers noted that with respect to the assessment of vocational interests, the stability of vocational goals is well established.

Guidelines for Eliminating Sex Bias

Perhaps the first major influence on sex-bias issues in interest measurement was the development of guidelines by the National Institute of Education (Diamond, 1975; "Guidelines for Assessment," 1975). These comprehensive guidelines encompassed three basic areas: the inventory per se, technical information, and interpretive information. The guidelines called for the use of the same inventory for males and females, unless empirical evidence was offered to support separate forms as more effective in eliminating bias. Scores for both females and males should be presented on all occupations. Areas of interest covered by a test and the sex composition of the norms both need to be clearly shown. There should be efforts to use sex-balanced items, to eliminate generic pronouns, and to neutralize occupational titles.

The guidelines recommended that the data for criterion groups, norms, and psychometric properties be updated every five years. Interpretive materials should encourage both sexes in each ethnic group to explore all career and educational opportunities. For the benefit of counselors and other test users, it would be educative to include in test manuals information related to sex-role stereotyping and socialization processes. In addition, it would be well to add a note of caution that the test users may be promoting bias in the way that they deal with their clients.

Efforts to Eliminate Sex Bias in Inventories

The AMEG Commission has reported (1977) the summary of survey results obtained from publishers and developers of eleven inventories. The developers of seven of these inventories have emphasized change in order to reduce the potential for sex bias. The seven inventories include the American College Testing (ACT) Interest Inventory, the Hall Occupational Orientation Inventory (HOOI), the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey (OIS), the Kuder General Interest Survey Form E, the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ), the Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (OVIS), and the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII). The primary activity toward change has involved improving the quality of item pools and score-reporting procedures. Changes have been made with respect to nonstereotypic, interpretive materials. Such changes can more readily be made than changes involving scale construction and criterion groups, current areas of major research efforts.

Of the above-mentioned inventories, the SCII has perhaps received most attention, in that it represents a revision of the original Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). The latter inventory was criticized as discriminatory (AMEG Commission on Sex Bias in Measurement, 1973), and its effectiveness in the counseling of women was seriously questioned (Huth, 1973). The new version of the Strong inventory combines the best items from both male and female forms into a common item pool for both sexes. The same reporting form is used for both males and females, and respondents receive scores on all scales (AMEG Commission on Sex Bias in Measurement, 1977). The grammar and vocabulary of the SCII test booklet and manual have been desexed. Item distributions have been roughly balanced in terms of favorability toward males and females. There is a greater emphasis on the homogeneous scales, as opposed to the empirical scales which appear on the SCII (Campbell, 1973). The reader may recall (see Lesson 3) the difficulties presented by empirically derived scales.

The concerns associated with the use of sexist language on interest inventories were discussed in Lesson 3. Harmon (1975) and Tanney (1975) have addressed the issue of gender specification in items and the potential hazard of this practice from the standpoint of sex bias. It appears that test developers are taking care to prepare item pools that are free of generic references (AMEG Commission on Sex Bias in Measurement, 1977).

Sex-Balanced Inventory Development

One rather recent area of investigation with respect to interest inventories has been the development of sex-balanced items and scales. The term "sex balanced" has been associated with reporting procedures providing similar career suggestions for both men and women. Sex-balanced scales are those on which males and females obtain similar scores (Hanson, Prediger, & Schussel, 1977). Sex-balanced items are those which are sex neutral, hence, equally attractive to women and men (Rayman, 1976).

The Unisex Interest Inventory (Uni-II) was developed initially for research purposes. This inventory was found to demonstrate item and scale sex balance superior to the American College Testing Interest Inventory (ACT-IV). The concurrent and construct validities accompanying this inventory provided support for its usefulness (Rayman, 1976). Hanson and Rayman (1976) further examined the psychometric properties of the Uni-II. The criterion-related validity of the sex-balanced scales was found to be adequate in view of the acceptable classification of individuals into appropriate membership groups. Sex-balanced scales appear to offer two distinct advantages: (1) the raw score frequency distribution is applicable to females and males, with no accompanying norming difficulties, and (2) the raw score interest profiles are similar for men and women who have the same vocational aspirations, are pursuing the same educational major, or have the same occupation.

The Uni-Sex ACT Interest Inventory (UNIACT) has been developed and will be used in the ACT Assessment Program in lieu of the ACT Interest Inventory (AMEG Commission, 1977). The UNIACT is designed to stimulate career exploration and exploration of the self in relation to careers. The scales that are generated correspond to Holland's typology (six dimensions representing occupations and dimensions). This inventory has been developed to minimize sex differences in item responses and appears to be adaptable to a variety of settings for a wide range of ages (Hanson, Prediger, & Schussel, 1977).

Rasch Model of Item Analysis

Elton and Rose (1975) reported an effective use of the Rasch model of item analysis in eliminating biased items on the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI). The Rasch approach claims to produce an objectivity in measurement. The estimation procedure used involves obtaining estimates of item difficulty (probability of being chosen) and level of interest (number of items chosen). The test calibration process entails calibrating items and obtaining interest estimates based on all responses. The items that are judged to fit the model are refitted, yielding new item and interest estimates. An important consequence of this technique is the definition of the scale or metric being used (in this case, vocational interest), regardless of the subjects taking the test. This leads to a diminished need for sex norms. These researchers found the Rasch scores to be in nearly perfect agreement with the scores obtained by the regular procedure for the six VPI scales.

Cooper (1976) indicated that presenting auxiliary information related to myths and realities in the world of work may promote greater career salience and exploration in women. In this vein, there is a technique of vocational counseling reported by Dewey (1974), which involves the use of the Non-Sexist Vocational Card Sort (NSVCS) and actively involves the client in the decision-making process, utilizing client-generated criteria. Numerous occupations, coded according to Holland's typology, are considered by the client in the card-sort process. The utilization of this technique can prove especially helpful in promoting new self-perceptions by women clients.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography and carefully review the narrative. Use the latter to present a lecturette about the topics of this lesson. As the facilitator, having read the narrative, you may opt to read some of the additional sources other than the basic readings. Be certain to have access to a chalkboard. Review the objectives and activities for this lesson. Assign student readings.

Activity I: The National Institute of Education Guidelines and Recommendations for Sex-Fair Use of Career Interest Inventories

1. Duplicate copies of the Handout: "Summary of Recommendations" (p. 2/81). Duplication of the recommendations was also suggested for learning activities in Lesson III.
2. Have students read pp. 117-156 in Chapter 3 of Stebbins, Ames, & Rhodes, *Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit* (1975).

Related Readings:

Dewey, C. R. Exploring interests: A non-sexist method. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1974, *52*(5), 311-315.

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Activity II: NIE Guidelines and Interest Inventories

Make available during this class session the occupational and basic interest inventories students received in Lesson 3. Students will also need copies of the "Summary of Recommendations" (p. 2/81) for this activity. It will also be helpful if manuals for these inventories can be obtained.

Related Readings:

AMEG commission on sex bias in measurement. A case history of change: A review of responses to the challenge of sex bias in career interest inventories. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 1977, 10(3), 148-152.

Guidelines for assessment of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest inventories. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1975.

Activity III: Sex-Fair/Sex-Affirmative Career Counseling

Students will again need copies of the "Summary of Recommendations" (p. 2/81) used in previous activities. Have the students read pp. 117-156 in Chapter 3 of Stebbins et al. (1975). Make copies of the Handout: "Counseling Transcripts and Situations" (pp. 2/83-2/86) to be distributed to the students.

Related Readings:

Ahrons, C. R. Counselors' perceptions of career images of women. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1976, 8, 197-207.

Birk, J. M. Reducing sex bias: Factors affecting the client's view of the use of career interest inventories. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institue of Education, 1975.

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Activity IV: Role Play

Make copies of the Handout: "Counseling Transcripts and Situations" (pp. 2/83-2/86) to be distributed to the students; this Handout was also used in the previous activity.

Related Readings:

Same as for Activity III, above.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: The National Institute of Education Guidelines and Recommendations for Sex-Fair Use of Career Interest Inventories

The purpose of this activity is to familiarize students with the comprehensive set of guidelines developed for use in sex-fair career interest assessment.

1. Ask students to form small groups of four or five and to examine the guidelines. Specifically, students should consider the implications, advantages, and disadvantages of each guideline.

3. Conduct a brief discussion on the reactions the small groups had to the NIE guidelines and recommendations.

Activity II: National Institute of Education Guidelines and Interest Inventories

The purpose of this Activity is to encourage students to examine specific interest inventories in the context of the NIE guidelines ("Summary of Recommendations").

1. Ask students to form small groups and use the NIE guidelines ("Summary of Recommendations" from p. 2/69) to evaluate the specific inventories they reviewed during Lesson 3. They should also review the manuals for adherence to the guidelines. (Note: The "Summary of Recommendations" does not address the use of manuals; however, familiarity with these materials is strongly recommended for the counselor trainee.)

2. Ask students in the small groups to attempt to determine the degree to which the specific inventories adhere to the twelve guidelines or recommendations.

3. For the inventories that appear to be in non-conformance with the recommendations, ask students to make a list of changes that would have to be made for the inventories to be sex fair.

Activity III: Sex-Fair Career Counseling

The purpose of this activity is to provide the opportunity for students to evaluate various counseling situations and to identify sex-fair/sex-affirmative techniques as opposed to sex-biased techniques.

1. Distribute copies of the Handout: "Counseling Transcript and Situations" (pp. 2/71-2/74).

2. Have students form into small groups and use the copies of the transcripts and situations that have been distributed. They will also need to refer to the "Summary of Recommendations" from p. 2/83.

3. Ask the students to read each transcript/situation, and then as a group respond to the accompanying study questions.

4. As a class, discuss the responses to the questions, considering the answers and points of discussion provided below.

Answers for Transcript 1:

1. Recommendation 3--report scores on both male and female scales--and 12--encourage freedom of choice.
2. Recommendation 11--use all available information.

Discussion

Both Counselor A and Counselor B fail to consider Carol's high scores on the male scale--physician and dentist (Recommendation 3). In so doing, they restrict the range of options available to Carol and discourage exploration (Recommendation 12). Furthermore, in counseling Carol, Counselor A uses very little information beyond Carol's inventory scores (Recommendation 11). The fact that Carol has aptitude and motivation well beyond most of her peers does not appear to influence Counselor A's rather stereotyped thinking about vocational choice. Only Counselor C utilizes all the information available (in both the inventory results and beyond) to help Carol see the opportunities open to her.

(Stebbins et al., 1975, p. 161).

Answers for Transcript 2:

1. Recommendations 7, 8, and 12. Counselor A made little attempt to explore the broad interest areas reflected in the inventory results. While the counselor did encourage exploring other options, the motivation for this encouragement was to move the client away from choices which might be considered "feminine."
2. Counselor B was limited by the inventory itself. The only norms available were same-sex norms. Although the pattern of interest was fairly well defined, Counselor B might have suggested filling out an additional inventory where scores on norm groups of both sexes could have been explored.

Discussion

In Situation A, the counselor's sex bias is being imposed on the client. Counselor A does not even appear to be aware of how that bias is affecting the client. Counselor A, furthermore, seems to be hiding a concern that the client's expressed interests in a direct nurturing role with children could be a reflection of some "feminine" tendencies.

229

Counselor B, on the other hand, gave the client some concrete suggestions on how to implement his interests. Counselor B openly discussed some of the ramifications of choosing a field which has traditionally been associated with the opposite sex, recognizing that such stereotypes are no longer appropriate. Counselor B chose to emphasize the client's freedom of choice of all options.

(Stebbins et al., 1975, p. 163)

Activity IV: Role Play

The purpose of this activity is to provide an opportunity for students to role play career counseling situations and practice applying sex-fair/sex-affirmative techniques in these situations.

1. Distribute copies of the "Counseling Transcripts and Situations" from pp. 2/83 to 2/86 (also used in Activity III).

2. Ask for student volunteers to play the roles of counselor and client.

3. Use the situations from the previous activity as settings for the role play. Volunteers for the roles may want to meet together briefly to outline a script.

4. As the role play is conducted before the class, have the students observing make notes about the interview, being particularly attentive to sex-fair/sex affirmative techniques and possible techniques that might be sex-biased.

   The following definitions may be helpful for students to consider as they observe the role playing.

   a. *Sex fair refers to materials/behaviors/counseling techniques that treat females and males equitably. For example, the counseling practice promoting equitable consideration by both sexes of all occupations is a sex-fair practice.

   b. *Sex affirmative refers to materials/behaviors/counseling techniques that acknowledge the impact of sex-role socialization and make an effort to overcome its effect. For example, a counseling practice that encourages consideration by females of occupations that have predominantly been held by males would be sex affirmative.

5. It may be helpful to change volunteers at one or more points into the interview to allow other students the opportunity to practice.

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*Resource center on sex roles in education. Counseling for sex equity: A context for assessing sex equity in counseling and counseling programs. Newton, Massachusetts: Education Development Center, in press.

6. Discusss as a class the techniques/approaches observed during the role play, especially as these relate to sex-fair or sex-affirmative practices.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Summarize the NIE guidelines for interest measurement associated with the basic areas of the inventory and technical information connected with the inventory.

2. How might the SCII be considered a more sex-fair inventory than the original SVIB?

3. What initial changes have been made by interest inventory developers in an effort to provide more sex-fair inventories?

4. How may the perceptions of counselors impact the career counseling process with women clients?

5. Discuss the advantages associated with the Non-Sexist Vocational Card Sort as an adjunct to the career counseling process.

Handout for Activities I, II, and III

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS*

Administering the Inventory

1. Use inventories as part of a total career guidance program.
2. Use a combined inventory form.

Reporting Inventory Results

3. Report scores based on both male and female scales.
    - 3a. Focus on same-sex scales.
    - 3b. Focus on pattern, not level of scores on opposite-sex scales.
    - 3c. Avoid spurious scores on opposite-sex scales.
4. Report scores based on both male and female norm groups.
5. Fill in the appropriate sex code.
6. Report scores based on special norm groups.

Interpreting Inventory Results

7. Identifying broad interest areas.
8. Identifying all occupations within a broad interest area.
9. Orient clients to the potential influence of sex bias on inventory results.
10. Interpret results for special groups carefully.
11. Use all available information.
12. Stimulate exploration.

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*Taken from:

Stebbins, L. B., Ames, N. L. & Rhodes, I. Sex fairness in career guidance: A learning kit. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Abt Associates, 1975.

Handout for Activities III and IV

COUNSELING TRANSCRIPTS AND SITUATIONS*

Transcript 1

Carol Merritt is a very bright high school junior, with demonstrated ability in science, chemistry, biology, and math. The results of standardized tests regularly given by her school indicate that she is in the 90th percentile or above in both aptitude and achievement, compared with other students her own age. She won a prize for her last year's biology project. She is self-assured, if a little quiet, and her concern for others is evident in two of her extra-curricular activities: babysitting and helping teach Sunday school.

When her mother was hospitalized, Carol became interested in nursing and began volunteer work at the local hospital as a nurse's aide. This experience has led her to feel that nursing would be an enjoyable career for her, and she receives support in this thinking from her family. Both her mother and father feel that nursing is a very practical vocation, one which can readily be fitted in with marriage and raising children.

As part of the regular counseling program in her school, Carol has taken an occupational inventory. Carol's measured interests correspond to her expressed interests and aptitudes. Her interests correlate most highly with those of women in the following occupations: nurse (.50), science teacher (.48), x-ray technician (.47), and physical therapist (.47). Her interests also correlate with those of men in the following occupations: pediatrician (.39), dentist (.37), physician (.37), and science teacher (.36).

Situation A

Counselor A is delighted to talk with Carol. Unlike many other students, Carol seems to know what she wants. Moreover, the inventory results confirm her tentative choice of nursing as a vocation.

Since Carol also shows an interest in science, Counselor A takes some time to point out to Carol the possibilities of a career in science. Carol could teach science, or she might become a lab or X-ray technician. Carol is open to the possibilities in science but both she and the counselor conclude that as a nurse she could apply her interests in science, her helping nature, and her love for people in a more purposeful and satisfying way.

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* From Stebbins, L. B., Ames, N. L. & Rhodes, I. Sex fairness in career guidance: A learning kit. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Abt Associates 1975.

Situation B

Prior to this meeting, Counselor B reviews the results of Carol's occupational inventory and compares them with Carol's scores on other standardized achievement tests. These scores and her extra-curricular activities show a highly correlated pattern of interests: namely, a sense of dedication to people and a love of science. Moreover, Carol is bright and has leadership qualities which could be developed further.

Taking into account all the information, Counselor B discussess with Carol the possibility of pursuing a five-year Bachelor of Science degree in Nursing. This course of action would offer her a great deal more status than a regular nursing program and would also satisfy her intellectual needs. With a five-year degree, Carol might teach and supervise other nurses, using her leadership ability as well.

Carol is extremely pleased upon leaving the counselor's office. A five-year nursing program offers her opportunities she has never explored before. She is delighted with the possibility of combining her love of medicine, science, and people in such an integrated fashion.

Situation C

Counselor C and Carol discuss the results of her occupational inventory carefully. She has scored in the medical area as she had expected.

Considering the scores on the female side of her inventory, however, does not give a complete picture of her interests. Counselor C points out that Carol might also consider the scores from the male side as well. When compared with men, Carol's highest scores continue to be in the medical and scientific areas.

With Carol's aptitude and motivation, Counselor C points out that she might give serious thought to pursuing a vocation as a physician, dentist, or pediatrician. While Carol had never thought of pursuing a professional career beyond the level of nursing, seeing her high scores on these scales triggers her thinking. Of course she will need to consider many things before making her decision--money for school, getting into a good pre-med program, etc. She hurries home to discuss all the pros and cons with her parents.

Study Questions:

1. Which recommendation do both Counselors A and B violate?

2. Which recommendation does Counselor A, but not Counselor B, violate?

Transcript 2

Fran Courtin is the son of a minister. For most of his life he has been an active participant in the programs at the church. During the time Fran has been in high school, he has been teaching a Sunday School class for 4- and 5-year-olds. Even though he has been given an opportunity to return to Sunday School classes with his peers, he has insisted that he prefers to work with the children.

Fran was administered a career interest inventory as part of the eleventh-grade testing program. His highest scores were on scales for "caring for people," "teaching and social work" and "nursing."

Situation A

Counselor A immediately shows Fran his scores and indicates that the high scores show a preference for working with people. Since Fran is one of the outstanding students in the high school in terms of high academic grades and leadership in a number of activities, Counselor A is certain Fran could excel at whatever he selects. Counselor A, however, feels that while these scores probably reflect Fran's socialization as a minister's son, they do not reflect a desire on Fran's part to seek a highly successful professional career.

As Fran and Counselor A discuss the meaning of these high scores, Fran suggests that he's been wondering about what he'd have to do to be trained to work in a day-care center. Counselor A, however, suggests that perhaps day care is not really an appropriate choice. After all, Fran has considerable potential and should think about jobs where he could really demonstrate success and earn a substantial salary. Besides, day care is not a field for men.

As they continue to discuss other fields such as law and medicine, Fran concludes the counselor is right. Working in day care would not allow him much of an opportunity to be really successful.

Situation B

When Fran enters the counselor's office, Counselor B has Fran's folder on the desk. Leaving it closed, they begin to discuss some of Fran's activities outside of school. Counselor B notes Fran's enthusiasm when he describes some of his experiences teaching the Sunday School class.

When Counselor B pulls out the interest inventory results, his description of the high and low scores is very thorough. The counselor points out that Fran's pattern of measured interests seems to parallel some of his outside activities. These activities have obviously provided Fran with an experiential basis for filling out the inventory as he did.

As Fran and the counselor discuss the implications of his pattern of scores, Fran suggests that he's been wondering about what he'd have to do to be trained to work in day care. Counselor B points out that there are a large variety of approaches, depending on what level job Fran might wish to have. Each of the levels requires different amounts of training, primarily in child development and early childhood education.

Counselor B also points out that day care is not the only kind of job where Fran could easily develop some of his interests in working with children. He could consider others such as elementary school teacher, social worker, and pediatrician. Whereas, at present, there are many women holding these jobs, the employment patterns are slowly changing. Both men and women are beginning to select jobs on the basis of interest in doing the work, rather than limiting themselves to traditional selections of men's jobs and women's jobs.

Fran agrees to consider some of the other alternatives and explore some college catalogs for programs in child development and early childhood education.

Study Questions:

1. Which recommendations does Counselor A ignore?

2. Could Counselor B have improved the reporting of scores to the client?

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*Basic reading for this lesson.

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UNIT 3

WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Donna Young
Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

The changing social role of women has caused our society to reexamine its existing structure and to make accommodations for emerging female and male roles. Educational institutions are not immune to these changes and must reflect the changes of society.

The educational institution itself has experienced change. More women have entered college, enrolled in continuing education programs, pursued advanced degrees, and demanded equitable employment opportunities.

Students pursuing careers in higher educational systems need to be aware of women's status in academia. Affirmative action and legislation enacted to protect women and minorities have mandated that members of the educational community understand the implications of these regulations. But most important, educators need to understand the barriers that exist which prohibit women from utilizing their potential and thereby decrease their contributions to society.

The purpose of this unit is to explore the position of women in higher education. The emergence of women's studies will be discussed, the history of women in higher education outlined, characteristics and attributes of women in higher education given, a systems perspective of the higher educational system presented, federal laws and regulations affecting institutions explained, and research on the professional woman reviewed. The format for the lessons includes learning objectives for the unit, a narrative which reviews the literature, required and suggested reading material, learning activities designed to achieve the objectives, and review questions.

The topic of women in higher education is very broad and comprehensive. Each section could easily command a quarter's study. However, the purpose of this survey course is to make the student aware of the many aspects of higher education which affect women in order to reach a complete understanding of the complexity of the current situation. Since a macroscopic approach has been adopted, detailed attention on any one subject area is not given.

No one resource consolidates information on the status of women in higher education; therefore, it was necessary to draw references from diverse sources. It is preferable that the course be offered at the graduate level and be taught through the Department of Education. In order to teach this course, the instructor should have a basic knowledge of the higher educational system and some familiarity with sex bias in education. Reading lists are extensive, but the instructors can choose those references which relate most specifically to the goals for their particular group.

OUTLINE

Lesson 1: Women in Higher Education: A Topic for Consideration

Lesson 2: Tracing the Women's Higher Education Movement

- A. Historical Perspective
- B. Socioeconomic Forces

Lesson 3: A Profile of Academic Women

- A. Characterization
- B. Continuing Education for Women
- C. Socialization
- D. Institutional Barriers
- E. Internal Barriers

Lesson 4: Using a Systems Approach to Understand the System

Lesson 5: Making It in the Academic World

LESSON 1

WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A TOPIC FOR CONSIDERATION

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to describe a patriarchal model of higher education and discuss its effects on women.
2. To be able to list and discuss the advantages of a sexually democratic university.
3. To be able to discuss the effect of the women's movement on the emergence of women's studies.
4. To articulate the purposes of women's studies courses.
5. To be able to demonstrate an understanding of the politics involved in establishing a women's studies course.

NARRATIVE

Women on college and university campuses have recently received considerable attention as evidenced in educational literature. One of the main reasons for this attention has been the dissatisfaction with male-centered universities. Our colleges and universities are governed by male hierarchies, and college courses have primarily addressed men's abilities and needs. The structure of higher education itself is now being examined, and demands are being made to give women equal consideration in higher educational systems.

Kanter (1975) stated that beginning with the earliest models, organizational structures have been designed around the "masculine ethic." The traits that are considered necessary for organizational effectiveness are assumed to belong exclusively to men. The analytical ability to abstract and plan, a tough-minded approach to solving problems, a capacity to set aside personal and emotional considerations in the interests of task accomplishment, and a cognitive superiority and decision-making ability are desired traits which are viewed as being possessed by men. The stereotypic view of women as irrational and emotional has precluded their attaining management positions and has relegated them to routine service positions (Kanter, 1975).

This description of the "masculine ethic" in organizations can readily be applied to educational settings when one realizes that most school leadership positions are held by men. College and university administrations, local and state boards of education, the U.S. Office of Education, the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, governing boards, and virtually all groups that make or affect educational policy are dominated by men. This all-male exclusivity has certain inevitable consequences in that sex stereotyping and inequalities will be perpetuated and extended (Sexton, 1976).

The people in leadership and decision-making positions seem unaware of the special needs of women. Thus, full-time status requirements for financial aid, inflexible class schedules and inadequate child-care facilities are a few examples of institutional practices which discriminate against women.

Harris (1974) described universities as the most sexist institutions in the country, and Rich (1975) equated the university with a patriarchal family. The vast majority of institutions are administered by men and most faculties are composed of men. The message is clear that women are considered second-class citizens (Harris, 1974). Rich (1975) said, "In textbooks, research studies, scholarly sources and lectures, women are treated as a subspecies, mentioned only as peripheral to men" (pp. 24-25).

Questions are being raised concerning the effectiveness of organizations which are totally male centered. Rich (1975) stated that the failures of a masculine culture are being acknowledged and that qualities considered "feminine" are needed for organizational effectiveness. Women are demanding that courses presenting an unbiased view about women and their lives be taught and that the administration and teaching of higher education be shared by both sexes.

In response to the demands, women's studies courses have been initiated on many campuses. In 1970, Tobias printed syllabi from women's studies courses taught in 1969-70; at that time seventeen courses were listed. In 1976, Howe reported that in seven years, more than 270 programs had been organized on as many campuses and that some 15,000 courses had been developed by 8,500 teachers at 1,500 different institutions.

The purpose of this lesson is threefold. The first purpose is to describe the characteristics of a male-centered institution and to discuss the effects of such a model on the education of women. The second purpose is to emphasize the effect that the women's movement has had on the establishment and justification of women's studies courses. Finally, a sexually democratic institution will be presented which incorporates the desirable traits of both sexes and insures equitable treatment for both.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the required bibliographical entries. Select the objectives and activities most congruent with the goals of your class and assign the student readings accordingly.

Activity I: Sexism in Education (Objectives 1-5)

Duplicate copies of the Handout: "Sexism in Education Quiz" (pp. 3/17-3/18).

Related Readings:

Sexism in education quiz. Comment: On Research/Action about Women, 1977, 10(1), 1.

Activity II: Just Because the Shoe Fits, You Don't Have to Wear It (Objectives 1-2)

Duplicate copies of the Handout: "Just Because the Shoe Fits, You Don't Have to Wear It" (p. 3/19).

Related Readings:

Harris, P. R. Problems and solutions in achieving equality for women. In W. T. Furniss & P. A. Graham (Eds.), Women in higher education. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974, 11-15.

Kanter, R. M. Women and the structure of organizations: Explorations in theory and behavior. In M. Williams & R. M. Kanter (Eds.), Another voice: Feminist perspectives on social life and social science. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1975, 42-51.

Rich, A. Toward a woman-centered university. In F. Howe (Ed.), Women and the power to change. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975, 15-34, 41-44.

Roby, P. Women and American higher education. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1972, 404, 134-139.

Sexton, P. Women in education. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1976, 55-60.

Activity III: Growth Group (Objective 3)

1. Prepare a brief synopsis of the relationship of the women's liberation movement and the emergence of women's studies courses. Use the narrative for this lesson and the readings in preparing the synopsis.

2. Review the Harris and Rich articles listed in Activity II.

Related Readings:

Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. *Opportunities for women in higher education: Their current participation, prospects for the future, and recommendations for action*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973.

Howe, F. & Ablum, C. Women's studies and social change. In A. S. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), *Academic women on the move*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973.

Howe, F. *Seven years later: Women's studies programs in 1976*. A Report of the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, State University of New York, The College at Old Westbury, June 1977.

Sicherman, B. The invisible woman: The case for women's studies. In W. T. Furniss & P. A. Graham (Eds.), *Women in higher education*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974, 155-177.

Stimpson, C. R. The new feminism and women's studies. In *Women on campus*. New Rochelle, New York: *Change Magazine*, 1975, 69-84.

Activity IV: This Is the Way We Get Things Done (Objectives 4-5)

1. Either duplicate copies of the Feig and Keiffer articles (pp. 3/23-3/29) or place copies on reserve.

2. Duplicate the Handout: "This Is the Way We Get Things Done" (p. 3/21).

3. Review the readings listed in Activity III.

Related Readings:

Feig, R. L. *Ivory couch or catalyst for change*. Paper presented at the American Council on Education, 55th Annual Meeting, Fountainbleau Hotel, Miami Beach, Florida, October 5, 1972.

Keiffer, M. L. The politics of women's studies. Paper presented at the American Council of Education, 55th Annual Meeting, Fountainbleau Hotel, Miami Beach, Florida, October 5, 1972.

Activity V: Sexual Politics (Suggested for students doing special projects)

Related Reading:

Millet, K. Sexual Politics. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1970.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Sexism in Education (Objectives 1-5)

The purpose of this activity is to see to what extent the students realize the status of women in higher education. Students should be informed that throughout the course the position of women in higher education will be examined, and that a study of the higher educational system itself will assist in understanding the situation.

1. Administer the "Sexism in Education Quiz" (pp. 3/17-3/18) to pretest the awareness level of the students.
2. Use this exercise as a stimulus to emphasize the need for a course on women in higher education.

Activity II: Just Because the Shoe Fits, You Don't Have to Wear It (Objectives 1-2)

This activity is designed to give the student an opportunity to analyze the organizational structure of an educational institution, to determine the extent of the institution's patriarchal foundations, and to generate discussions concerning the effects of such a model. In the second part of the activity, students will be asked to visualize a model based on sexual democracy. Finally, students will list the advantages and disadvantages of the patriarchal and sexually democratic models.

1. Divide the class into groups of 4-6 students.
2. Distribute copies of "Just Because the Shoe Fits, You Don't Have to Wear It" (p. 3/19) and ask the class to follow the instructions on the Handout.
3. Ask each group to share their completed charts with the class.

Activity III: Growth Group (Objective 3)

The purpose of this activity is to acquaint students with the growth of the women's liberation movement in relationship to the emergence of women's studies courses.

1. Present a brief synopsis of the relationship of the women's liberation movement to the emergence of women's studies courses.
2. Generate class discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. What are some of the social changes that are associated with the women's movement?

b. How do you relate the influence of the movement to the emergence of women's studies courses?

c. How do you relate personal experiences regarding the effects of these social changes on your own lives?

Activity IV: This Is the Way We Get Things Done (Objectives 4-5)

The purpose of this activity is to role play an actual situation in which faculty members attempt to initiate courses in women's studies. Through this simulation the students should learn to present the need for women's studies courses and to experience the politics that may be involved in establishing such a course.

1. Distribute copies of "This Is the Way We Get Things Done" (p. 3/21).

2. Divide the class so that the students can work on the problem in groups of 6-8 members.

3. Ask the students to follow the instructions and role play the situation.

4. Ask each group to share with the class the strongest and weakest defenses used in their situation.

5. Ask the class to equate this exercise to an actual college or university setting. Would the strategies employed be different? If so, how? Why?

Activity V: Sexual Politics (Suggested for students doing special projects)

The purpose of this activity is to give the student an opportunity to better understand the nature of patriarchy and how it operates in the oppression of women.

Have a student read Millet's Sexual Politics (1970) and give a review of the book's content to show analogies between it and the structure of higher education.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How does a patriarchal model of higher education differ from a sexually democratic model? What are the effects of each model on women?

2. How has the women's movement contributed to the emergence of women's studies courses?

3. List the barriers that one might encounter in attempting to establish women's studies courses. Construct a defense which might be used to counteract resistance to such courses.

Handout for Activity I

SEXISM IN EDUCATION QUIZ*

1. What percentage of full professors at institutions of higher education are women?

   a. 10%　　b. 51.3%　　c. 26%

2. During 1975-76, the percentage of women college and university faculty members:

   a. fell　　b. rose 2%　　c. stayed even

3. Out of 2,926 accredited colleges and universities in the United States, how many are headed by a woman?

   a. 1,463　　b. 812　　c. 154

4. What percentage of college and university trustees are women?

   a. 51.3%　　b. 22%　　c. 13%

5. In a recent national survey, what percentage of eleventh-grade girls selected careers from only 3 job categories: clerical and secretarial, education and social services, and nursing and home care?

   a. less that 10%　　b. over 50%　　c. about 25%

6. What proportion of working women are found in the following seven professional fields: teaching, nursing, music, social work, accounting, auditing, and library work?

   a. 4 out of 5　　b. 1 out of 5　　c. 2 1/2 out of 5

7. How do female and male college freshmen compare on preparation in mathematics?

   a. about equal
   b. females twice as well prepared
   c. males nine times better prepared

8. Research on male-female interaction in discussion groups shows that:

   a. about equal
   b. females twice as well prepared
   c. males nine times better prepared

9. A current study of 17,000 administrative positions in 1,150 institutions of higher education found that, in comparison to men holding comparable positions, women earn:

   a. about the same　　b. 10% less　　c. 20% less

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*Used by permission of Comment: A Research/Action Report on Wo/men, Copyright 1977, Jo Hartley.

10. Of all full-time, year-round workers in 1974, in order to earn roughly the same wages as men earned in 5 days, women had to work:

a. 6 days b. 7 1/2 days c. 9 days

11. How does this gap in earnings between men and women workers compare with the situation nineteen years ago?

a. gap is wider
b. gap is narrower
c. gap about the same

12. Women's studies courses have proliferated on campuses in the last 10 years. Over 1,400 departments or schools of education prepare students for careers as teachers, school counselors, and educational administrators. Of the 5,000 women's studies courses offered nationally, how many are offered in schools or departments of education?

a. 700 b. 315 c. 184

13. Women earned only one-fourth of the doctorates awarded in schools of education in 1972-73. What percentage of them were in educational administration?

a. 93% b. 10% c. 47%

14. Women comprised 66% of elementary and secondary teachers in 1974. What percentage of them were school principals?

a. 75% b. 50% c. 15%

15. A direct correlation between the number of women faculty and the number of women students who subsequently become career achievers has been established. What percentage of the faculty in schools of educational administration are women?

a. 51.3% b. 23% c. 2%

16. How many references to the need for attention to sex-role socialization and sex discrimination in education programs are made in the 1975 Proposed Revision of Standard of Accreditation of Teacher Education?

a. 46 b. 17 c. None

17. The word "sex" was added to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 because:

a. a Southern Congressman thought it would help defeat the bill
b. pressure from feminist groups made it necessary
c. the country wanted to make up for past injustices

ANSWERS: 1-a; 2-a, 3-c, 4-c, 5-b, 6-a, 7-c, 8-b, 9-c, 10-c, 11-a, 12-c, 13-b, 14-c, 15-c, 16-c, 17-a.

Handout for Activity II

JUST BECAUSE THE SHOE FITS, YOU DON'T HAVE TO WEAR IT

1. Draw an organizational chart depicting the positions of power and decision-making responsibility at your institution (or at educational institutions in general). Name the individuals presently holding positions of power (president, deans, chairpeople, faculty, board members, etc.).

2. Does the chart that you have drawn resemble a patriarchal model? What is the sex of the people in powerful positions? What role do women play in this hierarchy?

3. Does the patriarchal model adversely affect the education of women? How?

4. What attributes would be important for those in positions of power? Would the courses offered and the presentation of materials be different? Would lines of communication be altered? What other changes might one expect from a sexually democratic institution?

5. List the advantages and disadvantages of a patriarchal model; of a sexually democratic model.

Handout for Activity IV

THIS IS THE WAY WE GET THINGS DONE

Situation: Two faculty members in the education department have become concerned over the department's course offerings because none of the course topics covers sexism in education. They feel that this is an area with which all potential educators should be familiar, and they decide to have a planning session. The purpose of the planning session will be (1) to defend the need for such a course; (2) to determine the goals of the course; (3) to decide how the material would be incorporated into the present structure (i.e., would the course content have independent or interdisciplinary standing?); (4) to estimate the cost for initiating such a program; and (5) to be able to plan for possible negative reactions from both inside and outside the academic community. As education strategists, your group is to decide how to accomplish these goals.

Further (1) decide who should be involved in the planning session (for example, students, faculty, community); and (2) have the group conduct a session in which they discuss the topics presented in the above paragraph.

Handout for Activity IV

IVORY COUCH OR CATALYST FOR CHANGE?*

Comments on a Paper by Barbara Sicherman
The Invisible Woman: The Case for Women's Studies

Konnilyn G. Feig
University of Maine at Portland-Gorham

Barbara Sicherman's article, "The Invisible Woman: The Case for Women's Studies," is a concise summary of the historical role of women and the results of traditional psychological and societal assumptions about women as reflected in that great transmitter and preserver of the "hallowed stupidities" of the past, the university. It also outlines some well-thought-out concerns about the role of women's studies among traditional disciplinary offerings, the examination of innovative courses and teaching methods, and the future directions of institutions of higher education. The danger in such a brief but comprehensive treatment is the necessary omission of many issues which are of specific concern to members of the academic community. This commentary will attempt to isolate these while raising additional questions which are pertinent to the content, structure and pragmatic goals of women's studies.

Women's Studies: Why?

The author isolates the primary goal of women's studies as "the fostering of intellectual and personal autonomy in women." This is consonant with her emphasis on research as a fundamental area of concentration in women's studies programs. Aside from the very important functions of "information gathering" and "consciousness raising," it is not clear to very many in the academic world why women's studies should exist as an independent discipline. Most proponents emphasize, as does the author, the psychosocial features of women's studies as a catalyst for change in the attitudes and the self-concepts of women students. Very little has been said, however, about the intellectual contribution of women's studies to the neatly packaged body of learning we call Learning. Since this has not been clarified, many are justifiably confused about the academic justification for the separation of women's studies. Much more needs to be said about ways in which women's studies will make an intellectual contribution and methods for infusing this in the "standard curriculum" in order to render it "human," as the author suggests.

Why a Degree in Women's Studies?

Most educators in the country are now deeply concerned about the future of their graduates. While avoiding the danger of moving in the direction of "career mills," many institutions have found that they must seriously question the morality of encouraging overspecialized or underspecialized programs for students who will eventually encounter a very selective job market. Whereas the consciousness-raising function and research aspects of women's studies are clearly important, as is the necessity for women to move into traditionally male-dominated positions in order to bring about change and increased opportunities for more women, it is not clear where the women's studies major and advanced degree programs are leading. There are two issues involved here: 1) If women's studies become even more specialized and separate, they run the risk of creating a greater gap between them and the other disciplines and faculty when, as the author points out, one of the goals is to change the total curriculum. 2) If more and more women specialize in women's studies, especially in advanced and graduate degrees, their career and/or graduate aspirations may be somewhat limited in an era of the "buyers' market" and abundance of overqualified, overeducated, and much underemployed people. One of the crucial needs, both intellectual and pragmatic, in educating women for the rest of this century is to provide them with training that makes them employable.

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*Unpublished handout from American Council on Education 55th Annual Meeting, 1975. Used by permission of Konnilyn G. Feig.

How Do You Teach Women's Studies?

While stressing the importance of exploring "how women students learn," the author falls prey to a number of myths in higher education that affect the search for more creative teaching methods. The most widely accepted myth and the least explored is the assumption that the "traditional lecture method" featuring the teacher as "authority figure" is archaic or "bad." The examples the author uses of the more successful and innovative courses in women's studies are those in which the teacher rejects the "authority" role for a more participatory small-group setting, working and living cooperative environments, etc., all held to be situations more consonant with the way in which women learn. It is not at all clear on what basis it is assumed that women or people in general do not learn as well by traditional methods as by innovative ones. Also, there is a great deal to be said for increasing, not reducing, the involvement of women as "authority figures," as another consciousness-raising device for the benefit of the whole academic community.

Women's Studies: For Whom?

The most distressing omission in the article is its failure to mention ways in which the all-important task of changing higher education at its core is to be carried out by women's studies, whether alone or in conjunction with the many other new thrusts in advanced learning. The political uses of structures (programs, concentrations, majors, departments, centers, etc.) are less important than the systematic involvement of other areas of the university in a cooperative effort to bring about a profound change for the benefit of all students, the human effort which the author underscores as her final point.

After four years of discussion and defensive reaction, certain clear conclusions can now be pinpointed and their validity no longer need be debated. It is crystal clear that the subject of women is absent in any meaningful way from all university and college curriculums. That no area is an exception is also obvious. Enough current research is being done at least to hint at mind-blowing possibilities for thorough re-evaluation of scholarship and research concepts. No discipline can legitimately claim exemption from urgent examination and new scholarship/research. The object is not to include feminine perspectives because of a need to fill in some holes. The goal, of course, is full information, insights, concepts about the worlds of the past, present, future--knowledge essential for its own sake and essential to realistic decisions about the future based upon full understanding rather than upon myths. Since women have long accounted for one-half of the population, the researcher/thinker's refusal to recognize their existence or his [sic] habit of thinking of them as an inferior group can only be one of the most serious academic mishaps of all time.

The underlying reasons are unimportant. What is crucial and of overriding immediate importance is the question of what to do about it and how best (most thoroughly and quickly) to reach the objective, i.e., the full integration of women into the scholarship and research of all disciplines.

Handout for Activity IV

THE POLITICS OF WOMEN'S STUDIES*

Comments on a Paper by Barbara Sicherman
The Invisible Woman: The Case for Women's Studies

Miriam G. Keiffer
Bensalem College, Fordham University

Barbara Sicherman presents an excellent case for the need for women's studies. I can find absolutely no faults with her review of the reasons that women's studies are a necessary and perhaps essential step in fostering the intellectual and personal autonomy of women. I would want only to add scholarship about and for women as one of the major goals to be achieved by women's studies, along with "the fostering of intellectual and personal autonomy in women" suggested by Sicherman.

The Sicherman article leaves one with the feeling that things are going along rather smoothly in setting up women's studies programs and in the programs themselves. In her optimism, she only mentions and then glosses over the problems the programs raise. My knowledge of two programs, the one at Cornell and the one at Richmond College of SUNY, has led me to believe that things are not so simple and uncomplicated. The problems encountered seem to be major and difficult.

In my view, the Sicherman piece accurately reflects a situation which existed about two years ago, but in light of what has actually happened in setting up women's studies programs, it seems dated, overgeneralized and superficial.

I would have liked to see Ms. Sicherman talk more about the politics of women's studies and less about the need for having them. I am already persuaded that a body of knowledge should be included in academic curricula to destroy the currently held attitudes about women, to counter-balance the male-oriented approach of much of academic life and subject matter, and to create an atmosphere which will foster the intellectual growth and personal autonomy of women.

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*Unpublished handout from American Council on Education 55th Annual Meeting, 1975. Used by permission.

I do not have space here to describe fully all these conflicts that arise in setting up a women's studies program, but let me briefly mention some of them.

The first obstacle is the budget. How much money will be allocated for a women's studies program, for hiring a director, for staff, space, supplies?

Then, what will the goals of the program be and what will the structure be? Will the program be interdisciplinary and use the available faculty from a number of departments, or will there be faculty whose first and perhaps only responsibility is women's studies? Will the program be open to men as well as women, to university staff and community people as well as students? Will "objective" scholarship be a major goal of the program or will it be Marxist, or humanist, or socialist in its approach? Or will all theories and approaches be explored as equally valid? Who will determine the curriculum? Who will have the power?

The conflicts between town and gown, professionals and nonprofessionals, political activists and scholars, structure freaks and nonstructure freaks are not small conflicts, and entire semesters can be devoted to them to the dismay, discouragement and disgust of all involved.

In addition, it is important that a women's studies program not be shunted off into some dark corner of the university, to be dismissed by the larger academic community and never to be heard from again. Therefore, feedback mechanisms become critical. It is too easy for the university to set up a women's studies program, give it a very small budget, and then ignore it. All questions of women's status on campus are then referred to the program and the university does not have to deal with these kinds of issues any longer. It is somewhat like setting up a committee to study an issue and then never dealing with the committee's report. A women's studies program must find ways of tying into other departments and the university as a whole.

We are talking about change. We want to change attitudes and behavior, but to enable (force) people to change means that we must be able to exert pressure; and to exert pressure we need power; and to gain power we need money, time, and individual commitment, as well as the belief that women's studies (in whatever form) are a necessary addition to academic life. That is why we must concern ourselves with the politics of women's studies and be prepared to face and resolve the conflicts which are going to arise as soon as the idea of such a program is seriously talked about on a college campus.

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LESSON 2

TRACING THE WOMEN'S HIGHER EDUCATION MOVEMENT

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to trace the movement of women's higher education in America
2. To be able to identify societal, political, and economic forces which have shaped women's higher education.
3. To be able to compare the approaches used by leaders in the women's movement in establishing higher educational opportunities for women.
4. To be able to list the advantages and disadvantages of education in women's colleges versus co-educational institutions.

NARRATIVE

In order to understand the current status of sex equality in postsecondary institutions, it is necessary to trace the history of higher education for women. Only by examining the forces which have affected their destiny can one fully appreciate the struggle that women have encountered in pursuing an advanced education. This unit will trace the historical emergence of higher educational institutions for women and will examine the socioeconomic forces that have shaped their education.

Historical Perspective

The educational history of women is a subject which has suffered as much neglect as women's education. Sexton (1976) declared that the modern treatment of the subject is sketchy at best and that no comprehensive volume on any given period gives an account of the history of women in education. However, both Sexton (1976) and Bernard (1964) have been able to shed some light on the topic by reviewing the status of the education of women as it has fluctuated throughout the ages.

Ancient Greeks and Romans stressed the importance of educating males, but the education of females was not given equal attention. However, by the Middle Ages it was estimated that more women than men were literate (Sexton, 1976). In the 15th and 16th centuries, Italian women possessed high technical competencies, enabling them to teach at universities and lecture in academic circles. Nevertheless, the 17th century brought a decrease in the number of women who devoted themselves to any form of scholarship (Bernard, 1964).

The status of women's education is related to their social role in a particular society, and this is reflected in the history of higher education for American women. During colonial times, women were considered to be intellectually inferior to men. Therefore, the colleges established prior to the Revolutionary War were limited to the sons of the Anglo-Saxon Protestant elite. A college education was not deemed important for women, since their social and economic roles did not require a degree. However, seminaries for women were established which were modeled after the English finishing schools for girls, and their purpose was to teach basic literacy, religion, morals, and domestic and ornamental education. The first institution was Troy Seminary, founded by Emma Willard at Troy, New York, in 1821. Another educational achievement for colonial women was the establishment of normal schools. The education of children became a primary role of women, and normal schools were founded for the purpose of training women to teach. The first normal school was established in 1839 at Lexington, Massachusetts (Sexton, 1976).

Prior to the Civil War, only ten institutions made the A.B. available to women (Roby, 1972). The first co-educational college was Oberlin, which admitted women in 1833. Although Oberlin admitted women, they were not considered to be on equal footing with men. The women were required to wash the men's clothes, serve their meals, and clean the men's rooms (Sexton, 1976).

However, the financial strain caused by the Civil War forced many more colleges to open their doors to women (Roby, 1972).

The idealization of family life, notions of female inferiority, the influence of Darwinism, and the Romantic period were all forces tending to keep women in their place. Nevertheless, female colleges were established. In 1861, Vassar became the first women's college. Subsequently, the role of higher education for women became a lively topic of discussion.

Women educational leaders differed on their strategies for integrating women's colleges into the mainstream of American higher education. M. Carey Thomas, president of Bryn Mawr College, advocated that women's colleges be modeled after or even superior to the academic rigor of their prestigous male counterparts. In contrast, Alice Freeman Palmer, president of Wellesley, believed that the educational needs of women could best be met by concentrating on the refinement of attributes thought most appropriate for women (Frankfort, 1977).

Brown (1976) stated that in the early stages of women's higher education, the application of knowledge was stressed, but the creation of knowledge was not emphasized for women. For example, even today it is still debatable whether the educational benefits of a degree from a woman's college are comparable to those of co-educational colleges. However, Harris (1974) claimed that a sex-segregated education did not benefit women. Harris (1974) supported her claim by stating that the Gourman Institute ratings for all women's schools are at least 200 points (on an 800-point scale, 400 points is the accreditation level) below the supposedly equivalent men's schools.

The main reason for retaining women's schools has been the supportive atmosphere they provide their students. The atmosphere which the college provides its women students is considered the most effective measure for their educational attainment (Tidball, 1975). But Harris (1974) stated that women's colleges no longer take this responsibility seriously and that women's colleges are now male dominated. Schneider (1974) concurred with Harris that women's higher educational institutions no longer render the feminist support upon which many were founded. The question that must be resolved is whether sex-segregated and co-educational institutions are accommodating the educational needs of women students.

Socioeconomic Forces

In giving a perspective of the number of women attending higher educational institutions, Bernard (1964) defined the period beginning with the middle of the 19th century and continuing to the turn of the century as one of moderately rapid increase. She claimed that women were on trial in the eyes of the world. Bernard (1964) classified the time period including the turn of the century until 1920 as the highest growth period for women. Part of this growth was due to the increasing complexity of industrial production and the advent of World War I, which created a need for white-collar educated women (Roby, 1972). The rate of women entering higher education began to decline in the 1930's as a result of the depression and World War II (Bernard, 1963). Any time colleges experienced the economic effects of war, women were encouraged to further their education and pursue careers previously considered appropriate only for males.

However, when the war ended and economic stability occurred following the soldiers' return, women were persuaded to concentrate their efforts on domestic duties (Roby, 1972).

Although there have been political and social movements to advance the cause of women in higher education, Roby (1972) noted that the economic principles have had the greatest impact on the enrollment of women. Movements concerning the educational needs of women have frequently coincided with society's need for their services. Strides have been made, but Harris (1974) claimed that our society still does not value the education of women as highly as it values that of males. Feldman (1974) stressed that every stage in the history of higher education for women has involved controversy and opposition. He stated that each step to eliminate the inequality due to sex bias has met with resistance, a resistance which continues even today.

The purpose of this lesson is to give students a greater understanding of the movement for women's higher education. The societal, political, and economic forces will be analyzed as they have affected the development of higher education for women. The approaches of early educational leaders will be compared and their contributions to women's higher educational institutions will be studied.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the required bibliographical entries. Select the objectives and activities most congruent with the goals of your class and assign the student readings accordingly.

Activity I: The Way We Were and the Way We Are (Objectives 1-2)

1. Duplicate or place on reserve copies of the Handout: "The Role of Women as Thinkers" (pp. 3/51-3/71).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture which traces the history of women in higher education as it is affected by socioeconomic and political forces. A mini-lecture may be developed from the narrative in this lesson and from the resources listed in the required and suggested bibliography.

Related Readings:

Bernard, J. Academic women. University Park, Pennsylvania: The Pennsylvania State University Press, 1964, 1-40.

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Activity II: Interdisciplinary Approach to Understanding the Higher Education of Women (Objectives 1-2)

Review Readings in Activity I.

Related Readings:

Same as Activity I

Activity III: Pioneers of Women's Higher Education

1. Prepare a mini-lecture on the early educational leaders of the women's higher educational movement. Use the narrative in this lesson and the required and supplemental readings as references.
2. Duplicate the matching quiz from the Handout: "Who's Who in the Women's Higher Educational Movement" (p. 3/73).

Related Readings:

Bernard, J. Academic women. University Park, Pennsylvania: The Pennsylvania State University Press, 1964, 5-28.

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Activity IV: Women's Colleges versus Co-educational Institutions (Objective 4)

Familiarize students with the Nominal Group Process.

Related Readings:

Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. Opportunities for women in higher education: Their current participation, prospects for the future, and recommendations for action. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973.

*Delbecq, A. L., Van de Ven, A. H. & Gustafson, D. H. Group techniques for program planning: A guide to nominal and delphi processes. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1975.

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*Required for students using Nominal Group Technique for Special Project.

Activity V: More on Women and Higher Education (Suggested for students doing special projects)

Related Readings:

Select from the entries in the supplementary bibliography

Activity VI: Special Reading (Suggested for students doing special projects)

Related Readings:

Astin, H. S. & Hirsch, W. Z. (Eds.). The higher education of women. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1977.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity 1: The Way We Were and the Way We Are

The purpose of this activity is to make the students cognizant of the socioeconomic and political forces which have affected the education of women.

Alternative A

1. Present a mini-lecture which traces the history of women in higher education as it is affected by socioeconomic and political forces.
2. a. Divide class into small groups of four. Make certain that males and females are represented in all groups.
   b. Provide the small groups with the following stimulus questions:
      1. What have been your personal experiences in higher education with regard to the status of women?
      2. How have societal, economic, and political forces shaped your own education as well as the education of your parents, grandparents, or children?
      3. Do your families, schools, and communities value the education of females and males differently? If so, explain.
      4. Do you believe that your experiences in higher education differ from those of parents, grandparents, children, or other students? If so, how?
      5. What are the current societal, economic, or political forces that are shaping the education of women, e.g., the job market and affirmative action legislation?

   c. Instruct the small groups to share their responses with the total group.

Alternative B

1. Present a mini-lecture which traces the history of women in higher education as it is affected by socioeconomic and political forces. Use the paper on the role of women in higher education by Jennifer Brown (p. 3/51) as a handout.
2. Invite several women from different age groups to share with the class their experiences in higher education and to relate how socioeconomic and political forces influenced their education.

Activity II: Interdisciplinary Approach to Understand the Higher Education of Women (Objectives 1-2)

The purpose of this exercise is to encourage students with different academic disciplines to contribute additional knowledge for the study of women in higher education. One advantage of the interdisciplinary approach is that it broadens the power base. Many women's courses are designed around an interdisciplinary style.

1. Divide the class into academic majors; for example, education, history, English, sociology, and economics.
2. Have each group representing the various academic disciplines engage in a brainstorming session to identify forces related to their area of study which have influenced the education of women.
3. Have a member from each group present his/her findings to the class.

Activity III: Pioneers of Women's Higher Education (Objectives 2-3)

The purpose of this activity is to introduce the students to some of the leaders in the women's educational movement and to familiarize the students with the leaders' styles.

1. Distribute copies of the Handout: "Who's Who in the Women's Higher Educational Movement" (p. 3/73) and have the class complete the matching quiz.
2. Present a mini-lecture on the early educational leaders of the women's higher educational movement.
3. Generate class discussion by posing the following stimulus questions:
    a. What characteristics and traits did the early women educators have in common? How were they different?
    b. Give examples of how these women coped with societal, economic and political forces.
    c. Compare Martha Carey Thomas' ideals for women's colleges with those of Alice Freeman Palmer. Considering the time, which style was more effective? How did these divergent philosophies of women's higher education shape the development of women's colleges?
    d. How do the experiences and styles of early women educators compare with the experience of today's women in higher education?

Activity IV: Women's Colleges versus Co-educational Institutions Objective 4)

The purpose of this lesson is to expose the students to the advantages and disadvantages of women's colleges and co-educational institutions.

Alternative A*

1. Have four students implement the Nominal Group Technique (NGT) in order to determine the advantages and disadvantages of education in a woman's college versus education in a co-educational institution. The NGT allows for independent generation of thought plus group discussion and gives a mathematical evaluation for each item listed. With the NGT, participants are asked to work individually in generating a list of advantages or disadvantages of women's colleges and co-educational institutions. Each person then shares one of her/his items with the group and the items are recorded. After each person has exhausted her/his list, the group combines the items that are similar. Each item is then discussed separately and any group member is asked to share her/his feelings about the item. Each person then votes individually on the items. A rating or ranking of each item can then be presented. (Refer to Delbecq et al., Group Techniques for Program Planning: A Guide to Nominal and Delphi Processes (1975) for more detailed information.)

2. Have Group I assess the advantages of education at a woman's college.

3. Have Group II assess the disadvantages of education at a woman's college.

4. Have Group III assess the advantages of education at a co-educational institution.

5. Have Group IV assess the disadvantages of education at a co-educational institution.

6. Have each group share their findings with the class.

Alternative B

1. Utilize other group problem-solving techniques or debates to discern the advantages and disadvantages of co-educational versus women's colleges.

2. Have each group present their findings to the class.

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*Alternative A could serve as a special project for the four students who facilitate the NGT.

Activity V: More on Women and Higher Education (Suggested for students doing special projects) (Objectives contingent on selection)

The purpose of this activity is to broaden the student's knowledge of women in higher education

1. Have the students read additional material on topics related to the history of women in higher education.

2. Have the students present their findings in written or special oral reports. Suggested topics include:
    a. The Pioneers of Women's Higher Education
    b. The Higher Education of Women During the Colonial Period, in the South, the Education of Pioneer Women, etc.
    c. The Higher Education of Women in Other Countries
    d. The Development of Curricula for Women in Higher Education
    e. The Influence of Women's Colleges

Activity VI: Special Reading

The purpose of this exercise is to give the student more information on the role of women in higher education.

1. Have the students read Astin & Hirsch's The Higher Education of Women (1977).

2. Have the students make either an oral or written report on the book.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Highlight critical events of the women's movement in higher education.

2. How have societal, political, and economic forces shaped women's higher education?

3. In striving to acquire educational opportunities for women, how do the tactics employed by M. Carey Thomas compare with those of Mary Freeman Palmer?

4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of education in women's colleges versus co-educational institutions?

THE ROLE OF WOMAN AS THINKER: INTERPRETATIONS OF THE EFFECTS OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN LATE NINETEENTH-CENTURY AMERICA*

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Paper prepared for the Third Berkshire Conference on the History of Women, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania.

June 9 - 11, 1976.

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*Used by permission of M. Jennifer Brown.

The effects of the admission of women to institutions of higher learning historically have been considered important issues. Questions have focussed on how higher education for women has influenced society, the family, and women themselves. This paper first sketches the development of higher education for women in 19th-century America. After briefly discussing the predicted effects of this experience according to contemporary social critics, some actual statistical results of college education for women in this period are examined. A description and analysis of some of the ways historians have interpreted these issues follows. To conclude, the paper suggests areas for future research and raises some methodological questions which might be used to interpret some of these effects specifically upon the American college woman from 1870 to 1900.[1]

The overriding issue of women in higher education in the 19th-century was what the resulting role of the educated woman would be. The answers given to this question varied according to circumstance. Americans in the early part of the century were anxiously concerned with working out the functioning details of the republican system of government they had recently formed. As the smallest and primary social unit, the family assumed the crucial role of providing stability and control through the instillation of discipline and moral standards in the young. As men were assigned the role of physically building the nation, women were designated the builders of citizenship through childrearing. When seminaries and academies were founded in the early 1800s, those designed for female students reinforced these roles. Thus two of the more famous founders of female academies, Emma Willard and Catharine Beecher, who established schools in Troy, New York in 1821 and Hartford, Connecticut in 1822 respectively, wrote enthusiastically about the moral strength of women. While they celebrated the family, they accepted the belief that education in itself was a special calling for women. Their utilitarian systems resulted in education for women that was very practical and goal-oriented in efforts to create a reservoir of teachers to staff the nation's school systems at a minimum of cost. The new and patriotic mission of women was to teach and provide moral guidance for the republican family and thus the wider culture.[2]

This domestically-oriented service role for women in education was well-established by the time women were first admitted to an institution of higher learning. Indeed, when Oberlin College, a manual labor school, admitted women in 1837, it did so because women would perform all the domestic work, such as cooking and mending for the male students, in addition to keeping up with their own studies and looking after their own needs. Not only was it assumed that their nurturing instincts as females would improve the mental health of the male students and later provide companionship and cultural support as wives and help-mates when the males had graduated as ministers, it was believed that women would be good teachers who would work for subsistent wages and not compete or threaten the natural acquisitive character of the males.[3]

These patriotic and utilitarian factors continued throughout the 19th-century to be the primary reasons for admission as women entered state colleges, high schools, and later, midwestern state universities. In contrast to these particular goals, however, was the founding of colleges exclusively for women. Vassar College in 1865, Smith and Wellesley in 1875, The Society for the Collegiate Education of Women(later Radcliffe)in 1884, Bryn Mawr in 1885, Mount Holyoke in 1888, and Barnard in 1889, all were concerned with the intellectual development of their students. Modelled on the classical and literary curricula of eastern elite male colleges, the subjects and methods of teaching were designed to enable students to train their minds to think. The collective female life required students to assume primary rather than subsidiary roles, to develop their abilities in leadership, and to set high standards of performance. Yet like coeducational institutions, women's colleges were essentially concerned with the application rather than the creation of knowledge. In fact, over the latter part of the 19th-century, the intellectual and scholarly orientation of these schools constantly had to compete with the traditional, domestic focus. Moreover, as graduate schools opened to women, many advanced courses seemed to emphasise application rather than innovation and to stress sexual stereotyping rather than conceptual freedom. For example, the creation of specifically-designated women's professions, such as nursing, home economics, librarianship, and social work, underscored and perpetuated assumptions of women's nurturative nature. The thematic tradition of service by women in education therefore continued. Thus in graduate and professional schools, and later in the occupations themselves, the development of much intellectual inquiry was male-centred and male-created rather than equally shared.[4]

The effects of higher education for women were sources of great interest for the late-19th-century American public. Prescriptive literature constantly warned young women and their parents of the necessity of maintaining a sensible balance when attempting to educate the female mind. The developing science of statistics, which was increasingly being used as a tool of social analysis, was employed by those observing the effects higher education had upon women. These consequences were under the constant scrutiny of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, for example, which was formed in 1882 by several recent graduates from eastern women's colleges. Surveys of the Alumnae members were periodically made by the Association; some of the better known ones which are useful for the time span from 1870 to 1900 include those conducted in 1884, 1896, 1900, and 1915. While a great deal of work needs to be done to collect and analyse all the statistics gathered over the years by this group and by others, the more obvious patterns can be mentioned. The Association considered the creation and compilation of these questionnaires to be some of their most important projects because they hoped the results would justify the time, the money, and the participation of women in all aspects of higher learning. Over the latter part of the century the shifting emphasis in the kinds of questions asked reflected the changing concerns of the general public as well as the graduates themselves. As a result, according to the authors the "most interesting answers" of the first survey, made in 1884, were those concerned with the state of the graduates' health after undergoing the so-called rigors of study. The members responded to a whole variety of inquiries which attempted to determine whether there was a relationship between health and the amount of time spent studying, the extent to which college students worried, the amount of physical exercise undertaken, together with a range of other queries. The report concluded that by the time of graduation, 20% of the students' health improved, 20% deteriorated, and 60% remained the same. The Association was satisfied that higher education was not harmful for women and declared that there was "little need, were it within our province, for extended discussion of the subject." Extended public discussion nonetheless continued.[5]

Interest was especially high in regard to marital status. This was evident in the surveys, although the pattern for each statistical project of the Association tended to indicate that college women did not marry to the extent that non-college women did. It appears that graduates tended to marry later in life. The first study revealed that 72.2% were single and 27.8% had married up to 1884. Of the surviving graduates who responded to the survey made over thirty years later, 57.4% of 190 who graduated before 1880 had married, 53.0% of 821 who graduated between 1880 and 1890 had done likewise, as had 50.2% of the 3,178 who had graduated between 1890 and 1900. Although society continued to find the marital state of women graduates of great importance, the Association soon concurred with one social critic, who wryly noted that the marital statistics of college women

> no more establish a causal relation between marriage and the higher education of women than the occurrence of rain in a certain phase of the moon proves that the latter governs the former.[6]

Indeed, this type of information received less attention with each successive survey, as growing interest in the economic effects of college upon woman's position led to an emphasis on occupation-related statistics collected in cooperation with the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor. While such variables as changing methods in the collection of data make direct comparisons unwise, it is interesting to note that up to 1884, 27.6% of the graduates remained at home, 41.0% were teachers, and 31.4% were active in other professions. Thirty years later, by averaging the results of those graduates who had finished school by 1900, one sees that 24.5% of the college women remained at home after graduation, while 49.5% were in teaching at some point, and 26.0% were active in the other professions. Although the extent to which these statistics gathered, either by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae or by any other interested party, in turn influenced the decisions made by those associated with institutions of higher learning for women is unknown, it seems certain that they were influential in a wide variety of important ways.[7]

A number of useful studies have been done by historians who have concentrated on the history of higher education for women. Like the history of higher education in general, these works can be divided broadly into institutional histories and biographies, either during or after the college experience. Aside from the still-useful 1929 survey of Thomas Woody, the pioneering studies were begun by Jill Conway over a decade ago through her cultural analyses of carefully-selected careers of the first generation of women college graduates. Her studies have explored the relationships between ideas and the development of individuals and their professions. In a similar fashion, the connection between college women and settlement houses has been discussed by John Rousmanière. The relationship between ideas and the development of institutions has been drawn by Roberta Wein in her work on the domestic and service-oriented goals of women's colleges in the late-19th-century. Social history has been represented as well as cultural in studies such as that of Margaret W. Rossiter, who examined the career patterns of women scientists, and that of Sarah Gordon, who studied the social backgrounds of early Smith students. More recently, Rosalind Rosenberg has analysed the intellectual contributions of specific women to the development of social science thought. Collectively these historians have done an admirable job in describing the climate of late-19th-century higher education for women, interpreting some of the motives, tracing important themes, identifying the origins of many attitudes and issues, and analysing their relationship with much of the behavior of these early college women.[8]

Despite the rigorous scholarship, however, one subject has barely been explored. This topic deals with the important question of why woman's participation in higher education did not appreciably alter women's status in intellectual life nor particularly foster women's intellectual creativity. If one assumes that social roles reflect general attitudes towards individual capabilities, the fact that women have not participated in intellectual activities to any great extent means that they generally have not been considered capable of doing so. This is an important issue because in any society it is those individuals who live a 'life of the mind' i.e. the intellectuals who operate from the centre of the culture who reflect and influence the standards and values that will be assumed by that particular society. It is not at all clear exactly why women have not been considered capable of contributing to the most serious issues of the day or of shaping the direction and contours of newly-created knowledge. This issue, which is still a concern today, began with the graduation of the first generation of women college students. A variety of people expressed an awareness of the need for college-educated women to be intellectually accountable. Typical of this concern is the statement made by M. Carey Thomas, the dynamic president of Bryn Mawr at the turn of the century, on the real purpose of higher education for women.

> The highest service which colleges can render to their time is to discover and foster imaginative and constructive genius. Such genius unquestionably needs opportunity for its highest development. This is peculiarly the case with women students. As I watch their gallant struggles I sometimes think that the very stars in their courses are conspiring against them....If the graduate schools of women's colleges could develop one single woman of Galton's "X" type--say a Madame Curie, or a Madame Kovalewsky born under a happier star--they would have done more for human advancement than if they had turned out thousands of ordinary college graduates....To advance the bounds of human knowledge, however little, is to exercise our highest human faculty. There is no more altruistic satisfaction, no purer delight. I am convinced that we can do no more useful work than this--to make it possible for the few women of creative and constructive genius born in any generation to join the few men of genius in their generation in the service of their common race.[9]

While there is evidence of some women having high intellectual status and being intellectually creative relative to their colleagues in the late 19th-century, and certainly in the 20th, they have been viewed as deviant, not as uniformly preferable and generally achievable models. Describing what constitutes intellectual status and creativity are of course difficult tasks, certainly ones rooted in cultural values. For our purposes, however, it is possible to examine the question of women's relative lack of status or creativity on a much simpler level, using a more basic criterion, namely, the degree of recognition by the general public of these attributes in college-educated women. That they were not recognised is at least partly evident in that justifications for the participation of women in intellectual activities seemed as necessary in the 1900s as they were in the 1870s.[10]

To even begin to understand why women in higher education were not associated with the life of the mind, one must first explore in greater detail the circumstances and ideologies surrounding women's association with higher learning. Now that the telescoped approach has been utilised by the studies mentioned previously, it seems useful to try to fit the data back into the context of the society from which it was extracted. The remainder of the paper, therefore, will suggest some methodological questions which might be helpful in interpreting the data drawn from some areas which affect the degree of woman's intellectual status and the nature of woman's intellectual creativity. These include attitudes towards the intellectual ability of women, factors affecting graduates' occupational decisions, and characteristics of women's position within the professions. These interrelated areas will be explored with repeated reference to the broader historical influences of this time.

The admission of women to institutions of higher learning was only one of many changes for late-19th-century American society. The tension that had existed between settler and nature throughout the century heightened in this latter period as the stress of the wilderness was replaced by the strain of industrialisation, urbanisation, and a rising immigrant population. As economic goals became more important, competition in business sharpened and organisation and efficiency were seen as the means to success. The mid-century trend for occupations to become more professionalised now contributed to a hardening of class lines and to alterations in social relations and customs. For the first time the population was considered to be more urban than rural. The education system continued to expand at every level. American culture was seen by many to rival that of Europe's. Fascination for the new and modern was balanced only by the tremendous concern people had for the effects all these changes would ultimately have upon the nation. Vague feelings of aloneness and helplessness surrounded by this chaos resulted in a definite belief that some valuable traditions which were part of the American republic were being lost. The ineffective attempts to return to the past through the nostalgic remembrance of the pastoral aspects of nature were juxtaposed with a buoyant optimism and faith in the future and in progress itself.[11]

The intellectual ability of women, which was widely if slowly recognised during this unsettled period, is one subject that needs to be explored in greater detail. Tensions between nature and society, between primitive forces and civilising controls, were increased by the anxiety created by the evolutionary theories of natural selection and survival of the fittest that had been associated with Charles Darwin and Herbert Spencer. Many were concerned that

> unless this freedom of mental action [for women] lies in harmony with the universal physical and moral laws of Nature, liberty has overstepped the boundaries of legitimacy and become license, a policy of discord sure to end only in evil results.[12]

What effect did these tensions have on the changing attitude toward women's intellectual ability? Many people happily predicted that college women would prevent society from degenerating into an "aggragation of savages" because they had "ceased to belong to the common rank of the community." College women were not only representations of survival of the fittest, it was roundly declared, but they were also the "fittest to survive." In what ways did the scientific theory of Darwinism apply to the education and encouragement of women in higher education? North American society attempted to counteract the determinism of Darwinian theories with traditional American principles. Repeatedly it was confidently asserted that

> the home, central as it is in the present constitution of humanity, does not exist for itself; it exists for nothing less than humanity. Therefore through the home the college woman will contribute to the enrichment and the enlargement of the best forces of humanity. The progress of humanity is slow....But the effects which will, in the course of generations, be wrought through having the finest type of the intellectual woman regnant at the centre of the life of the race, cannot be even intimated--so vital, so comprehensive, so great will these effects be![13]

In conjunction with this was the popular belief that the mind represented the forces of civilisation and was necessary to control the body, which represented the unmanageable primitive forces of nature. How did women's intellectual participation in the life of the mind relate to these theories concerning mind/body relations?

Another aspect of the subject of attitudes towards women's intellectual ability is the success of women college students, often at the expense of men students, that was begrudgingly acknowledged. In fact, "many coeducational institutions have been forced to put up some sort of protective barrier in order to give the poor boys half a chance." The whole range of reactions to women's intellectual achievement needs to be examined. Some worried about the woman who was

> driven by keen intellectual ambition, and backed by an uncompromising conscience, [who] will spend so freely of her vital forces on study....what nature lent her as a trust for the benefit of future generations.

This crime against nature was being committed

> by thousands of the most sweet-natured, conscientious, and self-sacrificing girls in the civilized world [but this] does not in the least mitigate the heinous nature of the offense, nor will it diminish by a single stripe the inexorable penalty which outraged nature will exact.[14]

In what ways and by whom were their abilities encouraged? Did men regard women's intellectual ability as a threat to their own success? One college president warned that although the college was to teach woman " to claim, to hold, to use her rights," it was "not to train her to arrogate men's rights." It was asserted that

> the problem of women's education is not, as in the case of men, to provide spurs for the flanks of laziness, and blinders against temptations to dissipation, but to devise sufficiently effective checks and hold-backs.[15]

"Another principle," suggested by the pioneering psychologist, G. Stanley Hall, when discussing women's education, "should be to broaden by retarding; to keep the purely mental back and by every method to bring the intuitions to the front." Because attitudes of this nature seem to have been common, it is important to investigate the ways in which the intellectual success of women influenced the decisions which they made about their futures and to what extent access to rational thinking altered the traditionally-held ideas of women. The answers to these questions concerning the mental ability of women will be helpful when trying to understand women's relationship to intellectual status and creativity.[16]

A second area that would be useful to examine is the whole question of what governed the decisions of college women graduates concerning their selection of roles in society. The major options were whether to marry or to have a career and, if the latter were chosen, whether to enter a female- or male-dominated profession. The popularisation of tonics, exercises, and special health diets, together with strong interest in phrenology, mesmerism, psychical research, and other assorted medical theories, helped to give women a strong sense of themselves. Moreover, women college students were constantly reminded of this relationship between the mind and the body, between for example, too much study and not enough physical exercise. They were further warned that it was vital that they be active in some fashion when they graduated to avoid the "deep and perplexing unhappiness" which often made women physically ill and was the result of having nothing to do. To what extent did these attitudes affect the choices made?[17]

While it was generally believed that women made their decisions in response to men, to the popular theories that sexual temperaments were biologically-determined, or at least to the pressures of society, these influences need to be examined within the context of the times. For example, the political environment may have personally affected the individual woman, especially since she had been indoctrinated with a social conscience throughout her college years. Social critics generally were afraid that college women would forget the Republic and assume aristocratic airs. They urged graduating students to forget their education and the advantages it provided and be "the comrades of all who labor, the sisters of all who serve." At commencements these potential democrats were warned

> If you dare to think of yourselves as superior...if you put up the bars of intellectual and social aristocracy between them [i.e. the masses] and you, they will hate you, and despise you, and ridicule you; and the sense of your own isolation and alienation will burn itself into your soul like a withering, scorching curse.[18]

Patriotic feelings and responsibilities were suggested as women were reminded they had a "privilege in determining the character and destiny of the Republic" through the domestic role. The efficient, uniform system of education prepared women for shoring up the nation and civilisation itself(paralleling in many ways the American women who entered the academies early in the century)in order to provide strong social control through the family unit. They were frequently reminded of their social responsibility which was grounded in the belief that women were superior to men in providing the social controls necessary to contain the rapidly-increasing and transient population. Indeed some hopefully suggested that women had "qualities which constitute the finest and highest parts of civilisation" and the ability to "project them into human society." On the other hand, the very reasons the institution of the family was considered to be in trouble, such as the trends of urbanisation and industrialisation, were the reasons women's traditional power was considered to have declined. To what extent did women select roles as a recognised way of regaining power of specific aspects of society which had long been female-controlled? In what ways does this explain the creation and popularity of women's service professions? Some women obviously had learned

> that money is only a form of power, and that to work for and desire it may be a noble ambition. Money is, indeed, the most subtle and easily wielded form of power that civilization has ever contrived....The invention of gunpowder first made all men equal in the physical contest for life and liberty; the invention of money gave to women her first instrument of defence against social injustice.[19]

Alienation of the individual from the rest of society, as loss of physical and emotional contact resulted from the changing population and increasing industrialisation, affected everyone to some degree. This could have prompted women to seek some profession for the sociability involved. This certainly was important at the colleges themselves, to the extent that college officials were advised to caution students "against too warm friendships" since women college students formed associations quickly and "gave themselves up more than men to intimate relations." To what extent did women graduates choose a role in order to develop an identity and in efforts to escape the peculiar isolation of urban society? The fact that most people did not go to college made it difficult and lonely for some women. Going to college in the 1880s according to one woman

> was to feel oneself a marked character in the neighborhood, when returning as a college graduate meant to be constantly met with the would-be amusing protest that people were afraid to talk with me, I was so learned.[20]

Even more alarming to many women graduates, was the warning that life as a homemaker would not be one of intellectual stimulation and excitement to which she had become accustomed at school. One writer innocently advised women to read as much as they possibly could while students and store up as much knowledge as they were able since

> many women will find themselves prevented from feeding in the pastures of knowledge....There is some truth in the application of the method of the camel, of filling his many stomachs with food before he starts out on a long journey through the desert.

How many women chose a profession specifically to avoid that "desert" and to participate in the intellectual rigors of a life of the mind? Or is it possible that since over half the women college graduates by 1885 had grown up completely in the country, and since over three-quarters had spent at least part of their childhood there, the desire for rural surroundings may have been stronger than the desire to work, since professional jobs for women were usually in the cities. Were college women in fact afraid of losing contact with nature?[21]

As college students, women were believed to be aware that society was watching them and, as a result,

> for the sake of her sex, she, the college woman, thinks herself obliged to do her very best. She someway [sic] interprets womankind as prodding her womanhood to scale intellectual summits.

It would in fact be useful to know to what extent women were conscious of the implications of the decisions they made. How did the personality traits of the graduates involved and the particular ideologies in which they believed relate to the types of activities that were ultimately chosen? And finally, what kind of role-playing decisions were college men of comparable backgrounds making at this time? Research which attempts to fit the occupational decisions made by women college graduates within the context of the late-19th-century social forces will be useful in clarifying the motives which would affect women's intellectual behavior and position.[22]

Women's position within the professions, as a scholar, an intellectual, or a professional per se, in late-19th-century America should be studied since thinking itself is a social process. Chaotic tensions of the times contributed to the formalisation of professions which strove for control of some specific body of information and for credibility in the eyes of the public. It would be helpful to know how women were accepted in this atmosphere and whether they were seen as threats to the potential legitimisation of the profession. Towards the end of the century, it was affirmed that

> the man who chances to be a minister, or a doctor, or a lawyer, has ceased to fear, if ever he did fear, that the ranks of his profession are to be crowded by women struggling for a place.

As part of this issue, the frequent feelings of anti-intellectualism periodically expressed by American society must be studied with regard to women intellectuals. Ellen H. Richards, the founder of home economics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, adapted to this climate and decided not to "scorn womanly duties, but claim it as a privilege to clean up and sort and supervise the room and sew things." She recognised that this behavior "is winning me stronger allies than anything else." Did role conflict and consciousness affect the attitudes, the behavior, and most important(for our purposes), the productivity of women professionals?[23]

It would be advantageous to know how women had been prepared, in college or in some other way, for taking an active part in professional life and whether as students their intellectual creativity had been consciously fostered. While some believed that

> all through the college course the thought should be emphasized that the object and aim of the education there acquired is to enable students to use their acquirements as effective tools with which to carve the fortune of life for themselves[24],

most seemed to think that women were less able than men in this particular area. Not only were males and females supposed to do better in different subjects(males, for example, were supposed to be good in philosophical studies and females good in historical studies), but the very traits that supposedly made women do well right up to graduate school, namely, their ability to absorb knowledge and communicate it, were thought to prevent them from being able to create knowledge. In what ways were women socialised into roles as thinkers and innovators? Was it within the context of other females, males, or both? It is important to learn what role women were seen to play as intellectuals and to see how widespread was the belief that, as in the rest of life, men and women had different roles in living a life of the mind. It was often asserted that

> in scholarship and the public life to which scholarship affords the introduction, man and woman have equally honorable though differently specialized faculties and functions.

The assumptions that women were not capable of creative contributions in most professions naturally would influence the individual woman's performance and the attitudes of her colleagues toward her work. Indeed, it was said that although men would be judged by the work they did, women, even when they performed the same sort of work, would always be held in esteem for the amount of "love and joy" that shone through. What evidence is there that women's intellectual achievements were downgraded or were simply ignored? At at least one commencement address, graduates were warned that they would be far happier and would contribute far more to the world by the "deliberate abandonment of the ideal of scholarly production, and the acceptance of the giving and receiving intellectual and social enjoyment." While it was admitted that there were a few women who were creative scholars, and that most men in fact were not, it was still argued that college women should not even try, since

> nineteen women out of every twenty who set before themselves the ideal of productive scholarship will be doomed to disappointment. They will make vast acquisitions, and impart them to others skillfully and effectively; but only the very exceptional few will achieve that organic insight, that masterly unification, which will make their contribution to the subject individual and enduring.[25]

During this period there was a tremendous amount of competition and tension as different ideologies struggled for predominance, as attempts were made to control nature through science and civilisation through social science, as new disciplines formed and attempted to control specific areas of knowledge, and as scholars and intellectuals and professionals strove for recognition in an intellectual contest for survival of the fittest. What were women's relations to these competitions and struggles? Not only must work be done in the sociology of professions, studies must be made in the sociology of knowledge. Indeed, the whole problem of what creativity is and what the characteristics of a creative person are is called into question by the generally-accepted definition of intellectual creativity given by a college president at the turn of the century. Not only did it mean

> the power to grasp as a whole some great department of human knowledge; keep abreast of every advance that is made in it;[and] from time to time add some contribution to it

but, and most significantly, it also meant that

> above all so vitally to incorporate it, so vigorously to react upon it, and so systematically to organize it, that the scholar puts his individual stamp upon it, and compels whoever would master the subject to reckon with the individual form which he has given to it.

This obviously masculine definition of creativity in intellectuals emphasises the fact, which increasingly is being noted in many disciplines, that one really must question the very standards one uses to interpret the behavior and attitudes of the members of this culture. A reassessment of these various issues associated with the development of the professions and their respective ideologies should subsequently make women's relationship to intellectual status and intellectual creativity comprehensible.[26]

Answers to these and similar questions potentially can be found in a wide range of resource materials. These include the published and unpublished papers of institutions of higher learning, such as presidential reports, faculty records, student publications, examination papers, medical records, and physical education reports. Material related to former students has frequently been donated to their schools. These include letters and journals, as well as alumnae reports and papers. Another fruitful source for statistics, opinion polls, and scholarly papers, as well as for the development of group sociability, exists in the documents of local and national alumnae organisations. The published and unpublished papers of women scholars, intellectuals, and professionals, together with the papers of the professional organisations with which they were associated, will be invaluable. As these areas are explored, further possibilities for research will be revealed.

To summarise the approach that seems necessary to use in future historical studies of American women in higher education, one might turn to the story related in a late-19th-century young people's magazine. The article concerned the famous astronomer, Maria Mitchell, a professor at Vassar. Miss Mitchell, it was reported, was interrupted from delivering a "carefully prepared lecture" by a young woman who informed her that her collar was unpinned.

> Instead of being grateful[rumor has it, she]was highly indignant, and intimated to the young persons present that she was not considering her dress at the moment, and should be better pleased if they would follow her remarks instead of criticizing her adornment.

In going beyond the rhetorical finery of our 19th-century sources, we shall discover to what extent women in higher education were truly clothed in intellectual vigor.[27]

Criticisms by Jill Conway, Nikki Strong-Boag, and Alison Prentice have been most useful in the preparation of the paper and are greatly appreciated.

1 Recent historiographical articles which comment on problems such as these include Gerda Lerner, "Placing Women in History: Definitions and Challenges," Feminist Studies, III (Fall ,1975), 5-14 and Carroll Smith-Rosenberg, "The New Woman and the New History," Feminist Studies, III (Fall, 1975), 185-98. Most recent perhaps is the review essay by Barbara Sicherman,"American History," Signs, I (Winter, 1975), 461-86. For recent historiographical work on the history of women in higher education, see Patricia Albjerg Graham, "So Much to Do: Guides for Historical Research on Women in Higher Education," Teachers College Record, LXXVI(Fall, 1975), 461-86. To put this subject in a broader context, see Geraldine Jonich Clifford,"Saints, Sinners, and People: A Position Paper on the Historiography of American Education," History of Education Quarterly [hereafter referred to as HEQ], XV(Fall,1975),257-72.

2 See Jill K. Conway, "Perspectives on the History of Women's Education in the United States," HEQ, XIV(Spring,1974), 1-12; Glenda Riley, "Origins of the Argument for Improved Female Education," HEQ,IX(Winter 1969), 455-70; Phillida Bunkle,"Sentimental Womanhood and Domestic Education, 1830-1870," HEQ, XIV(Spring,1974), 13-30; Janice Law Trecker,"Sex, Science and Education," American Quarterly, XXVI,(October,1974), 352-66; Barbara Welter, "The Cult of True Womanhood: 1820-1860," American Quarterly, XVIII(Summer,1966),151-74; Barbara Welter,"Anti-Intellectualism and the American Woman," Mid-America, XLVIII(July,1966),258-70; Linda K.Kerber,"Daughters of Columbia: Educating Women for the Republic, 1787-1805," in The Hofstadter Aegis: A Memorial, ed. by Stanley Elkins and Eric McKitrick(New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974),36-59.

3 See Ronald W. Hogeland,"Coeducation of the Sexes at Oberlin College: A Study of Social Ideas in Mid-Nineteenth-Century America,"Journal of Social History, VI,(1972-73), 160-76.

4 See Conway,"Perspectives,"8ff., Mabel Newcomer, A Century of Higher Education for American Women (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1959); and Roberta Wein, "Women Colleges and Domesticity, 1875-1918," HEQ, XIV(Spring, 1974),31-47.

5 Examples of prescriptive literature popular in this period include Edward H. Clarke, Sex in Education (Boston: Osgood, 1874); Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Woman and the Alphabet: A Series of Essays(Boston:1881); and Julia Ward Howe, ed.,Sex and Education: A Reply to Dr. E.H.Clarke's 'Sex in Education' (New York: 1874). For accounts of the public's reaction, see such secondary sources as Willystine Goodsell, The Education of Women: Its Social Background and Its Problems (New York: The Macmillan Company,1923) and Marion Talbot and Lois Kimball Mathews Rosenberry, The History of the American Association of University Women, 1881-1931 (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931).

See Talbot and Rosenberry, AAUW for the history of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, the forerunner of the AAUW.The surveys of the Association are useful to varying degrees.For the purposes of this paper, Association of Collegiate Alumnae, Health Statistics of Women College Graduates (Boston: Wright & Potter Printing Co., State Printers, 1885) is useful because it deals only with college graduates. Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Compensation in Certain Occupations of Women Who Have Received College or Other Special Training, Prepared from Material Supplied by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae (Boston: Wright & Potter Printing Co., State Printers, 1896/Association of Collegiate Alumnae Publication Series II, No.56) is not useful because it does not distinguish who are college graduates and who have received other kinds of education, such as secretarial training. The third survey mentioned is very rare, and has not been seen at the time of this presentation. Reference to this report was made in Talbot and Rosenberry , AAUW, p. 127 to a study done in 1900 by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae [hereafter referred to as the ACA] with the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor on a variety of subjects related to the woman college graduate. For some reason it did not appear until 1917, when it was printed privately by the woman who had prepared it, Dr. Isobel Maddison. However, the final statistical survey is helpful, especially when it breaks down the findings by decade. Mary Van Kleeck, "A Census of College Women: Report of an Investigation for the Association of Collegiate Alumnae in Co-operation with Eight Colleges for Women and one Co-educational University," Journal of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, XI(May, 1918) 557-91. For the statistics on the health of women college graduates, see ACA(1885), 76. A fuller breakdown of the relevent figures, and for those statistics that follow, can be found in the appendix.

6 See ACA(1885), 62-63 and Van Kleeck,"Census," 578. The quote is by Charles Franklin Emerick,"College Women and Race Suicide," Political Science Quarterly, XXIV(1909),270.

7 See ACA(1885), 28 and Van Kleeck,"Census," 561.

8 Thomas Woody, A History of Women's Education in the United States,(New York: Octagon Books, 1974 [repr. of 1929 ed.]), 2 vols., Jill K. Conway,"Jane Addams: An American Heroine," Daedalus, XCIII(Spring, 1964), 761-80; ———, "The First Generation of American Women Graduates," (unpublished Ph.D.dissertation, Harvard University, 1969); ———, "Women Reformers and American Culture, 1870-1930," Journal of Social History, V(Spring, 1971), 164-77; ———, "Perspectives," John P. Rousmanière, "Cultural Hybrid in the Slums:The College Woman and the Settlement House, 1889-1894," American Quarterly, XXII(Spring, 1970), 45-66; Wein,"Women Colleges," Margaret W. Rossiter,"Women Scientists in America Before 1920," American Scientist,LXII(May-June, 1974), 312-24; Sarah H. Gordon, "Smith College Students: The First Ten Classes, 1879-1888," HEQ, XV(Summer, 1975), 147-68; and Rosalind Rosenberg, "In Search of Woman's Nature, 1850-1920," Feminist Studies, III(Fall, 1975), 141-54.
For specific accounts of the relationship between women and institutions of higher learning, see for example, Kathryn Kish Sklar,"American Female Historians in Context, 1770-1930," Feminist Studies, III(Fall, 1975), 171-84; Rossiter, "Women Scientists," and Peter J. Frederick,"Vida Dutton Scudder: The Professor as Social Activist," New England Quarterly, XLIII(September, 1970), 407-33.

9 For an overview of the psychological and sociological aspects of creativity, see "Creativity,"International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences(1968), 435-61. For the generally-accepted treatment of intellectual creativity, see Richard Hofstadter, Anti-intellectualism in American Life (New York: Vintage Books, 1963), especially 25ff. Also see Philip Rieff,ed.,On Intellectuals(Garden City, New Jersey: Doubleday, 1969) and William I. Gleberzon,"The Historical Evolution of American Intellectuals: The Odyssey of a Term, 1898-1929,"(unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1972),11ff.
Contemporary concern for the intellectual accountability of women can be seen for example, in Jessie Bernard, Academic Women(University Park: Pennsylvania State University Press, 1964); Eleanor E. Maccoby,"Women's Intellect," in The Potential of Women, ed. by Seymour M. Farber and Roger H.L. Wilson(New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.,1963), 24-39; Saul D. Feldman, Escape from the Doll's House: Women in Graduate and Professional Education(New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974); Saundra R. Murray and Martha T.S. Mednick,"Perceiving the Causes of Success and Failure in Achievement: Sex, Race, and Motivational Comparisons," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,XLIII(December, 1975), 381-85; Sandra S. Tangri,"Determinants of Occupational Role Innovation Among College Women." Journal of Social Issues,XXVIII(1972), 177-99; M. Elizabeth Tidball, "Perspective on Academic Women and Affirmative Action," Educational Record, LIV (Spring, 1973), 130-35; Helen S. Astin, The Woman Doctorate in America(New York: Russell Sage, 1969); Jill K. Conway, "Coeducation and Women's Studies: Two Approaches to the Question of Woman's Place in the Contemporary University," Daedalus, CIII(Fall, 1974), 239-49; and Martha Mednick, et.al. Women and

Achievement: Social and Motivational Analyses,(New York: Halsted Press, 1975). This cross-section of work of course can only suggest the wide variety of approaches and theories concerning this important issue of current concern. The quote is from M. Carey Thomas in The Educated Woman in America: Selected Writings of Catharine Beecher, Margaret Fuller, and M. Carey Thomas, ed. by Barbara Cross(New York: Teachers College Press, 1965), 167-69.

10 For an examination of some of the problems of women intellectuals as academics, and their relationship vis-à-vis feminists, see Rosenberg,"Woman's Nature," passim., and Sklar,"Female Historians," passim.
A comparison of the arguments used to justify the suitability of higher education for women can be made,for example, with Howe, ed.,Sex and Education; Charles Franklin Thwing, The College Woman(New York: The Baker & Taylor Co., 1894); Anna G. Spencer, Woman's Share in Social Culture(New York: M. Kennerley, 1913); and Goodsell,Education of Women.

11 For a general background to this historical period, John A. Garraty, ed., The Transformation of American Society, 1870-1890(New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968) and Richard Hofstadter, The Age of Reform: From Bryan to F.D.R.(New York: Vintage Books, 1955) are useful.

12 ACA(1885), 5. For a general study of this tension, see for example, Daniel Calhoun, The Intelligence of a People(Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1973).

13 Thwing, College Woman,135, 168. Discussions of the relationship between nature and the perception of woman's role can be found in Annette Kolodny, The Lay of the Land: Metaphor as Experience and History in American Life and Letters (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1975); Cleo McNelly, "Natives, Women, and Claude Levi-Strauss," Massachusetts Review, XVI(Winter, 1975), 7-29; Annis Pratt,"Archetypal Approaches to the New Feminist Criticism," Bucknell Review,XXI(Spring, 1973), 3-14; Sherry B. Ortner,"Is Female to Male as Nature is to Culture?" in Woman, Culture, and Society, ed. by Michelle Zimbalist Rosaldo and Louise Lamphere(Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1974),67-88 and Lois Paul,"The Mastery of Work and the Mystery of Sex in a Guatemalan Village," in Rosaldo and Lamphere, Culture, 281-300.
For a discussion of some of the attitudes towards the relationship between the mind and the body in the early part of the century, see John R. Betts,"Mind and Body in Early American Thought," Journal of American History,LIV(1967-68), 787[illegible].

14 William DeWitt Hyde, The College Man and the College Woman(Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, The Riverside Press, Camebridge), 202-204.
See, for example, the figures on the Ph.D. graduates from the University of Chicago to 1909 relating to final academic standing.

Total of:	80 women	434 men
cum laude	41.3%	33.4%
magna cum laude	40.0%	40.1%
summa cum laude	7.5%	5.3%

Marion Talbot, The Education of Women(Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1910), 21.

15 Thwing,College Woman, 133 and Hyde, College Man and Woman, 202-203. Hyde's chapter on "The Worth of the Womanly Ideal," which seems to be the late-19th-century continuation of "true womanhood"(see Welter's article), repeatedly asks, and unsuccessfully attempts to answer, what sphere of influence would be left to men. Also typical of this concern is LeBaron Russell Briggs, Routine and Ideals(Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, The Riverside Press,1906), 120ff.Thwing, Hyde, and Briggs were all college presidents during the period in

question. They were typical of the ideas they expressed and the opinions they reflected.

16 G. Stanley Hall, *Adolescence*(New York: D.Appleton & Co., 1904), vol.2, 636.

17 Helen Ekin Starrett, *After College: What?-For Girls*(New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company, 1896), 9.

18 Hyde, *College Man and Woman*, [illegible]2-93. Also see L.B.R. Briggs, *Girls and Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, The Riverside Press, Cambridge, 1911),86-87.

19 See Hyde, *College Man and Woman*, 216; Thwing, *College Woman*,29; and Starrett, *After College*. 18-19.
Typical of the worry concerning the disintegration of the family is the work of Hyde,"The Worth of the Womanly Ideal,"*College Man and Woman*, 194-218.

20 See Thwing, *College Woman*, 74, on the 'dangers' of college friendships.
Emily Greene Balch in *Improper Bostonian: Emily Greene Balch Nobel Peace Laureate, 1946* by Mercedes M. Randall(New York: Twayne Publishers, Inc., 1964), 51.
For a discussion concerning the presence or lack of emotional or physical contact, see for example, Carroll Smith-Rosenberg,"The Female World of Love and Ritual: Relations Between Women in Nineteenth-Century America," *Signs*,I(Autumn, 1975), 1-30. For examples of warnings against any kind of intimacy, see Mrs. John Farrar, *The Young Lady's Friend*(New York: 1860) and Mary Wood-Allen, *What a Young Girl Ought to Know*(Philadelphia:1897).

21 Thwing, *College Woman*, 32. For a breakdown of the figures related to the backgrounds of the young women, see ACA(1885), 22.

22 Thwing, *College Woman*, 71-72.

23 Ibid., 17.
Ellen H. Richards in *The Life of Ellen H. Richards* by Caroline Hunt(Boston: 1912) 91.
For a discussion of the development of the professions in 19th-century America, see Paul Buck, ed.,*Social Sciences at Harvard, 1860-1920: From Inculcation to Open Mind*(Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1965); Mary O. Furner, *Advocacy and Objectivity: A Crisis in the Professionalization of American Social Science, 1865-1905*(Lexington, Kentucky: The University of Kentucky Press, 1975); and Daniel H. Calhoun, *Professional Lives in America: Structure and Aspiration, 1750-1850*(Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1965).

24 Starrett,*After College*, 15. Emphasis supplied.

25 Hyde,*College Man and Woman*, 210-11; 207-208.
For a general look at women and the roles they assumed in the 19th-century, see Carroll Smith-Rosenberg,"The Hysterical Woman: Sex Roles and Role Conflict in 19th-Century America," *Social Research*, XXXIX(Winter,1972), 652-78 and ________ and Charles Rosenberg,"The Female Animal: Medical and Biological Views of Woman and Her Role in 19th-Century America, *Journal of American History*, LX(September, 1973), 332-56. For female intellectual role models see Ellen Moers,"Mme de Staël and the Woman of Genius," *The American Scholar*,XLIV(Spring, 1975), 225-41.

26 Hyde, *College Man and Woman*, 206. Emphasis supplied.
See, for example, Karl Mannheim, *Ideology and Utopia: An Introduction to the Sociology of Knowledge*, trans. by Louis Wirth and Edward Shils(New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964).

Examples of the nature of this current reassessment can be found in the work of Rosaldo and Lamphere, *Culture*, passim., and the review essays which reassess the various academic disciplines in light of current re-thinking of woman's relation to the culture that have been appearing in *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, I(Autumn, 1975).
It seems likely that an historical study of this nature could profit from ACA-related material. For example, see Harriet C. Brainard, "The Significance of the Ideal in Educational Work--A Plea for Pure Scholarship", (ACA Publication, Series II, No.53--An address given before the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, October 26, 1894).

27 *The Youth's Companion*, XLVII, no.40(Thursday, October 1, 1874), 321.

APPENDIX

The following figures are taken from Association of Collegiate Alumnae, Health Statistics of Women College Graduates (Boston: Wright & Potter Printing Co., State Printers, 1885). Participating schools included:

- Boston University
- University of Kansas
- University of Michigan
- Smith College
- Vassar College
- Wesleyan University
- Cornell University
- Massachusetts Institute of Technology
- Oberlin College
- Syracuse University
- Wellesley College
- University of Wisconsin

Total number of questionnaires sent out	1300
Total number of responses	705
Percentage of responses	54.2%

and from Mary Van Kleeck,"A Census of College Women: Report of an Investigation for the Association of Collegiate Alumnae in Co-operation with Eight Colleges for Women and one Co-educational University," Journal of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae,XI(May, 1918),557-91. Participating schools included:

- Barnard College
- Cornell University
- Radcliffe College
- Vassar College
- Wells College
- Bryn Mawr College
- Mount Holyoke College
- Smith College
- Wellesley College

Total number of graduates through 1914	24503
Total number living	23582
Total number of responses	16739
Percentage of responses	71.0%

BREAKDOWN OF MARITAL STATUS - ACA 1918(Van Kleeck,"Census")*

		GRADUATES WHO HAVE BEEN				
CLASS	GRADUATES REPORTING	MARRIED		MARRIED MORE THAN ONCE	WIDOWED	DIVORCED
		NUMBER	PER CENT			
prior to 1880	190	109	57.4%	1	39	1
1880 to 1890	821	435	53.0%	5	68	2
1890 to 1900	3178	1594	50.2%	11	56	13

* See Van Kleeck,"Census," 578.

POST-GRADUATION ACTIVITIES *

YEAR SURVEY MADE	GRADUATING CLASS	% WHO REMAINED AT HOME	% OF TEACHERS	% IN OTHER PF FESSIONS
1884	all students to 1884	27.6	41.0	31.4
1915	all students to 1880	21.1	42.6	36.3
1915	1880-1890	26.0	53.7	20.3
1915	1890-1900	26.3	52.2	21.5

* See ACA(1885), 28 and Van Kleeck,"Census," 561.

TIME ELAPSING BETWEEN GRADUATION AND BEGINNING WORK, BY CLASSES *

CLASS	GRADUATES WHO BEGAN WORK AT A SPECIFIED TIME AFTER GRADUATION LESS THAN 1 YR.	1 - 2 YRS.	2 - 3 YRS.	3 YRS OR MORE	TOTAL
prior to 1880	41	19	11	35	106
1880 to 1890	306	118	43	88	555
1890 to 1900	1128	504	207	392	2231

* See Van Kleeck,"Census," 575.

BREAKDOWN OF ACTIVITIES OF GRADUATES - ACA 1885 *

TOTALS	HOUSEHOLD	PROFESSIONAL	TEACHING	INTELLECTUAL	STUDY	PHILANTHROPY	SOCIAL
732#	129	116	300	71	43	25	48
100%	17.6%	15.9%	41.0%	9.7%	5.9%	3.4%	6.5%

* See ACA(1885), 28.

# That this figure is greater than the total number of responses received(705) is probably due to the fact that some people listed more than one activity.

COMPARISON BETWEEN PARTICIPATION IN TEACHING AND NON-TEACHING OCCUPATIONS - ACA 1915 *
(GRADUATES WHO HAVE BEEN EMPLOYED AT ANY TIME)

CLASS	GRADUATES REPORTING	GRADUATES GAINFULLY EMPLOYED AT ANY TIME				
		TOTAL	TEACHING ONLY		OTHER OCCUPATIONS	
			NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
prior to 1880	190	121	81	66.9%	40	33.1%
1880 to 1890	821	608	441	72.5%	167	27.5%
1890 to 1900	3178	2342	1659	70.8%	683	29.2%

* See Van Kleeck,"Census," 561.

Handout for Activity III

WHO'S WHO IN THE WOMEN'S HIGHER EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENT

Match the early women educators to their accomplishments

1.___Mary Carey Thomas
2.___Ellen Richards
3.___Catherine Beecher
4.___Alice Freeman Palmer
5.___Maria Sanford
6.___Florence Sabin
7.___Emma Willard
8.___Margaret Fuller
9.___Mary Lyon
10.___Mary Wollstoncecraft

a. Advocated "emancipated intellect" to free women from domestic servitude
b. President of Wellesley College
c. First woman faculty member at MIT
d. Founder of Hartford Seminary
e. President of Bryn Mawr
f. First woman professor
g. Author of Vindicating of the Rights of Women, 1798
h. Founder of Mt. Holyoke
i. Founder of Troy Seminary
j. First woman admitted to John Hopkins Medical School

Quiz Sources:

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Answers:

1. e
2. c
3. d
4. b
5. f
6. j
7. i
8. a
9. h
10. g

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LESSON 3

A PROFILE OF ACADEMIC WOMEN

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to describe the attributes of women students, faculty, and administrators.
2. To be able to discuss the effect of socialization on the education of women.
3. To be able to identify the institutional barriers in higher education.
4. To be able to identify the internal constraints of women in higher education.

NARRATIVE

The characteristics and attributes of women students, women faculty, and women administrators are discussed in this lesson. Information related to the paucity of women in higher education will be interpreted in light of female socialization, institutional barriers, and the internal constraints of women.

Characterization

Women who enter college tend to come from higher socioeconomic backgrounds and to major in studies which are closely related to the jobs that women traditionally perform (Cross, 1974; Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). Also, women who teach in post-secondary institutions are more likely to be concentrated in studies that are usually considered traditional female areas, such as education, nursing, home economics, and social work.

According to the report submitted to the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973), the attrition rate for undergraduate and graduate female students is higher than that for males. A closer look at women graduate students reveals that they are more likely to be part time, to be single (49 percent) and to be older than the median age of graduate students.

According to Feldman (1974), the least successful graduate student is the female student who attempts to combine the role of student and spouse. However, the report submitted to the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education suggests that women who enter graduate school and receive the doctorate are, on the average, better able to perform their work than men students (1973).

Women comprise 25.6 percent of two-year college faculty, 22.7 percent of the faculty for four-year colleges, and 19.8 percent of the research universities' and prestigious schools' faculties (Robinson, 1973). Women faculty are usually hired at lower salaries, attain lower status, receive marginal opportunities, and move through the ranks more slowly than men (Robinson, 1973). Hochschild (1975) stated that universities do not make adjustments for the family, which may explain why more women faculty are single and why more women acquire part-time positions.

Only 6.8 percent of all college presidents are women, and 69 percent of the women presidents are in institutions with a religious affiliation (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977; "I.D. Identification," 1976). Women are generally found in the middle- and lover-level administrative positions which almost never lead to the top. Women occupy seven out of eight of the lowest paying positions in administration and are paid four-fifths, or 80 percent, as much as men holding comparable positions ("Average Salaries," 1977). Robinson (1973) stated that the titles of women administrators are often misleading since women seldom have any real decision-making authority. Patterson and Sells (1973) commented that women administrators are often assigned "women's work."

The literature devoted to women in higher education has been almost as sketchy as their presence during the first half of the present century. Although women have graduated from high school more frequently than men, they have been reluctant to pursue college degrees (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). Likewise, the number of women in graduate schools and administrative positions has remained relatively low.

However, the most recent figures indicate that women are now closing the gap on enrollment figures. In 1977, women students accounted for 93 percent of the enrollment growth of colleges and universities. Furthermore, 49 percent of all American college students are women. Women now account for 52 percent of all part-time students and 46 percent of all full-time students (Margarell, 1978).

The number of women pursuing graduate and professional degrees has also fluctuated. In 1900 approximately 20 percent of all Master's degrees and 6 percent of all doctoral degrees were awarded to women. By 1930 the percentage had increased to 40 percent and 15 percent, respectively. From 1930 to 1950 there was a sharp decline in the percentage of degrees awarded to women (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). The 1976 figures showed that 46 percent of the students graduating with master's degrees and 23 percent of those with doctoral degrees were women ("Conferred in 1976," 1977).

Enrollment of women in professional schools has also increased in the past few years. In 1969 women comprised 9 percent of the enrollment in medical school. In 1977 women accounted for 22 percent of the total enrollment. Enrollment figures for women in veterinary medicine jumped from 8 percent in 1969-70 to 20.4 percent in 1974-75. Similarly, the percentage of women in dental schools rose from 1.4 percent in 1969-70 to 7.0 percent in 1974-75. The number of women in law school has more than tripled from 1969-70 to 1974-75. The enrollment of women in law school was 7.5 percent in 1969-70 and by 1974-75, women comprised 23.4 percent of the enrollment (Project on the Status and Education of Women, 1977).

Women have been underrepresented in graduate and professional schools. Although their representation has improved, Clark (1977) claimed that this sexual inequality in educational trends will continue into the 1980's. Similarly, the relative representation and status of women faculty on college and university campuses have deteriorated over the last fifty years. Women faculty still comprise only one-fifth to one-fourth of the total faculty and are concentrated in the lower status positions. As far as women administrators are concerned, one resource commented, "women are so rarely represented in top administrative positions as to be practically nonexistent in the upper echelons" (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973, p. 123).

Less than 10 percent of all women have graduated from college and fewer than 20 percent have ever attended a post-secondary institution (Sexton, 1976). An estimated 75 percent of all intellectually qualified students who do not enter college are women (Roby, 1972). Cross (1974) asserted that women are the largest reservoir of youthful talent not continuing beyond high school, and Epstein (1973) stated that talented women who have moved through the academic ranks are underutilized.

Continuing Education for Women

Perhaps the most phenomenal growth for women in higher education falls under the rubric of continuing education. Rice and Goering (1977) quoted statistics from the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor which showed that between the years of 1960 and 1972, the number of women students aged 25-34 years seeking to further their education had tripled. Of the 750,000 adults over 35 years of age attending college in 1972, 53 percent were women. In the early 1950's, American colleges and universities began to explore the issues and problems connected with the education of women, and in 1951 the American Council of Education identified women's education as a distinct part of the education of men and as an area of the Council's active concern. Recent attention directed to women students has been heightened by human power shortages, waste in human abilities, and the dissatisfaction of housewives with their lives (Astin, 1976).

Murple (1976) contended that women emerging from conventional roles need special programs in order to make the transition into the academic world. Durchholz and O'Connor (1975) agreed that women returning to or entering school often face personal and institutional problems not shared by the traditional students and need continuing education programs which facilitate their transition.

Astin's study of continuing education programs (1976) revealed that women return to school for personal fulfillment, to get more education, and to prepare themselves for jobs. Women are attracted to colleges by the programs offered and through the encouragement of other women. According to Astin, women who return to school report changes in their self-concepts, awareness and insight. Astin concluded that colleges are finally adjusting their programs to meet the needs of women. This arrangement appears to be of mutual benefit to colleges with sagging enrollments and to women seeking fulfillment.

Socialization

In order to fully understand why women are so inadequately represented in higher education, one must look at the socialization process. Beginning at birth, boys and girls are subjected to a wide variety of societal influences that tend to prepare them for different roles later in life. Boys are encouraged to be aggressive, competitive, and independent, whereas girls are rewarded for being passive and dependent (Guttentag & Bray, 1976; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Thus begins the sex-role stereotyping socialization process.

Research investigation of sex-role stereotypes has indicated that as early as preschool age, children form clear-cut expectations about the differing roles of males and females in society. Before they enter school, children can designate toys, occupations and interests as male or female (Schlossberg & Goodman, 1972). Boys grow up knowing that someday they will have to earn a living and they are encouraged to plan and prepare for this lifetime work. The attention devoted to the selection of careers is not deemed as important for girls, and consequently, they are not encouraged to plan for careers.

Henning and Jardim (1977) viewed the lack of emphasis on career development for women as a handicap in preparing them for work. Because women make stereotypic choices or are not encouraged to think in terms of a wide range of careers, they frequently delay making career choices. The majority of women end up as homemakers. Of those women who do work outside the home, 78 percent are clerical or service workers (Bem & Bem, 1975). Schools only serve to reinforce the sexual stereotypes that are taught by parents, friends, and the mass media (Howe, 1971).

Institutional Barriers

The institutional barriers encountered by women in educational settings largely account for their small numbers in higher education. The structure of educational institutions often serves to discourage women because men usually occupy superordinate positions, while women occupy subordinate roles (Silver, n.d.). This lack of female role models in top level positions has been shown to have an adverse effect on women in higher educational systems (Douvan, 1976).

Standards for admission, distribution of financial aid, counseling services, curriculum content, and regulations governing student conduct are often disadvantageous to women. Roby (1972) stated that because they make better grades and graduate from high school in larger numbers, women should be more equally represented in higher education. The admissions requirements for graduate study work to the disadvantage of women, since women are often part-time students and many graduate schools require full-time study (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973).

In terms of financial aid, Bengelsdorf (1974) reported that men have greater financial resources for attending college and receive more scholarships than women. As far as graduate students are concerned, Atwood (1972) reported that 80 percent of the most prestigious fellowships go to men; that 49 percent of graduate men, as compared to 37 percent of graduate women, receive stipends; and that men receive more federal loans. Silver (n.d.) noted that the counseling advice given to students is often sex differentiated, and since more instructors in higher education are men, they are more likely to encourage males to pursue advanced studies.

The representation of women in textbooks and in course content as being passive and subordinate is still apparent in all forms of higher education (Silver, n.d.). In the past, women college students were subjected to rules and regulations that were not applicable to male students. Blatant differences in student conduct regulations no longer exists on most campuses, but differences in treatment may only be less obvious.

The single institutional barrier most damaging to women is probably the college classroom. Bem and Bem (1971) suggested the existence of a non conscious ideology which results in differential treatment of female and male students. This may not even be realized by the instructor because sex-role stereotyping has become so internalized (Clark, 1977). Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) claimed that we are taught disparate societal expectations for men and women; therefore, we begin to treat them accordingly, thus reinforcing the beliefs about differences.

The academic structure also inhibits the development of women faculty and administrators. Women faculty are often part-time employees, and their positions do not hold the status and prestige of full-time positions. The rules governing tenure are often rigid and do not accommodate the employment patterns of most women (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). The academic reward system is based on research and publications

(Sexton, 1976). Since women typically emphasize teaching, they are handicapped because of the masculine values which influence the reward structure (Clark, 1977). The lack of child-care facilities and the existence of anti-nepotism rules also operate to the disadvantage of the female faculty members (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973).

Women administrators often lack the skills deemed necessary for these positions (Shavlik, 1975). Silver (n.d.) believes that women are not taught in teacher training programs how to climb to the top and how to manipulate the system to bring about change. She also described graduate training programs as being detrimental to women who desire administrative positions.

According to Silver (n.d.), women students are a minority in educational administration training programs. Women comprise only one-third of the Master's level students and only one-tenth of the doctoral students in educational administration, and 98 percent of the faculty of these departments are males. Female students have usually sought professional advancement despite their professors, who tend to be much more traditional, middle class and conservative in orientation. Graduate training programs have tended to keep down the numbers of women in leadership positions by providing incompatible and/or dissatisfying social settings for women students and by differentiating students according to placement potential. Silver (n.d.) gave illustrations to demonstrate her point:

> Although women have generally had to be deviant from the norm to be in administration training programs, the male students have typically been more conforming, more compatible with the existing power structure, more able to visualize themselves as part of the administration group. Thus, there are likely to be personality clashes between men and women in the graduate school situation: the women tend to be older, in many cases having raised families during the intervening years; they also tend to be more experienced and more socially deviant than the men.
>
> These clashes might be particularly detrimental in the graduate school setting, where informal relationships have great potential impact both on initial job placement and on further career advancement. To the extent that women are excluded from the close friendships that often form in graduate school, they are denied influential colleagues throughout their careers. To the extent that women do not become comfortably compatible and collegial with their professors, they are denied important informal recommendations for jobs, recommendations that become increasingly important as the number of available jobs decreases (p. 12).

Sexton (1976) stressed the importance of collegial faculty relationships to enhance professional development and concluded that women faculty members are often lacking this supportive atmosphere. Both Shavlik (1975) and Silver (n.d.) concurred that women are not encouraged to enter administrative positions, and this is a key factor in preventing their entrance to the ranks of administration. Patterson and Sells (1973) stated that women administrators are primarily clustered in the middle- or lower-level positions which are low paying, dead-end jobs with little or no chance for advancement. Epstein (1970) attributed the dearth of women in administration to sex-typing of occupations and ambiguous performance criteria.

Another institutional barrier which has received recent attention is the informal network system. An informal network is one which informally transmits information not available through the formal structure. This informal communications network has proved to be a powerful socializing agent, and those people excluded from the process are severely handicapped (Henning & Jardim, 1977; Kanter, 1977). Women are often denied access to this inner circle of socialization which is deemed necessary for learning about the organization (Epstein, 1970, 1973). Sexton (1976) claimed that the exclusion of women from collegial informal relationships also affects their productivity.

Research indicates that more subtle forms of discrimination within institutions also operate to women's disadvantage. In a study conducted by Schien (1973), successful middle managers were perceived as possessing characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men than to women. Hagan and Kahn (1975) reported that men tend to discriminate against competent women when interacting in a work situation. Rosen and Jerdee (1974) found that managers expect male employees to give top priority to their jobs when career demands and family obligations conflict. However, the same managers expect female employees to sacrifice their careers for family responsibilities.

Internal Barriers

Although external barriers partially account for the paucity of women in higher education, women themselves must hold some of the responsibility for their difficulties. The socialization and treatment of female students affect their self-image (Feldman, 1974), thus creating internal barriers to their success in higher education. Women begin to internalize the stereotypic view imposed upon them, and the resulting low self-image affects their educational decision making. Roberts (1974) illustrated this point by reporting that women graduate students do not have a clear sense of the profession for which their training is preparing them. Graham (1970) cited internal ambivalence, lower aspiration levels, and fewer publications as some of the reasons that women did not achieve in the academic world. Women are often not prepared to advance themselves in the academic world. They frequently lack the doctoral degree, perceive themselves to be less mobile, and assign secondary status to their jobs (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973).

Bernard (1964) felt that part of the problem lies in the fact that women are not in strategic and productive positions in the academic marketplace. Women tend to remain in positions which are considered beginning places for most men (Robinson, 1973). Frequently, the few women who do attain these coveted positions are only tokens. Many times the dominant class will place minorities in these top positions to prove that they are not prejudiced. Women in such positions are led to believe that they are special and begin to identify with the dominant class (Long-Laws, 1975). The term "queen bee" has been coined to describe women in such positions. The queen bee feels that she has made it on her own and that other women should do the same (Staines, Tavris, & Jayaratne, 1974). The token woman and the queen bee are in positions enabling them to assist other women, but they view themselves as deviates who must learn the dominant group's philosophy and frequently alienate themselves from other women.

Some women in positions of power are now knowledgeable about how to assist other women in the organizational activity. Programs such as the National Identification Programs are being formulated to take into account the internal and external barriers and to devise ways to assist women in positions of power to help other women (Taylor & Shavlik, 1977).

The purpose of this lesson is to analyze the status of women in higher education. The characteristics and attributes of women students, faculty, and administrators are studied in order to better understand their underrepresentation in higher education; and the internal and external constraints affecting women students are analyzed.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the required bibliographical entries. Select objectives and activities most congruent with the goals of your class and assign student readings accordingly.

Activity I: Images of Women in Academia (Objective 1)

1. Prepare a mini-lecture which describes the characteristics of women students, faculty, and administrators. Use the narrative and the required and supplemental bibliographies as resources.
2. Distribute the Handout: "Profile: Academic Women" (p. 3/99).

Required Readings:

Astin, H. S. (Ed.). *Some action on her own: The adult woman and higher education*. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1976.

Average salaries of administrators at more than 1,000 U.S. colleges and universities, *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1977, *15*(1), 12.

Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. *Opportunities for women in higher education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973, 15-126.

Clark, L. Fact and fantasy: A recent profile of women in academia. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 1977, *54*(2), 103-109.

Cross, K. P. The woman student. In W. T. Furniss & P. A. Graham (Eds.), *Women in higher education*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974.

Kreps, J. M. The woman professional in higher education. In W. T. Furniss & P. A. Graham (Eds.), *Women in higher education*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974.

Margarell, J. Women account for 93 percent of enrollment gain. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 1978, *15*(17), 9.

Patterson, M. & Sells, L. Women dropouts from higher education. In A. S. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), *Academic women on the move*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973.

Robinson, L. H. Institutional variation in the status of academic women. In A. S. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), *Academic women on the move*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973.

Sexton, P. *Women in education*. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappan Educational Foundation, 1976, 121-132.

Activity II: Appraisal of Research on Socialization (Objective 2)

Required Readings

Bem, S. L. & Bem, D. J. Case study of a nonconscious ideology: Training the woman to know her place. In D. J. Bem (Ed.), *Beliefs, attitudes, and human affairs*. Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole, 1970. (Revised 1971 edition.)

Black, M. Issues, problems, and pitfalls in assessing sex differences: A critical review of the psychology of sex differences. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1976, *22*(4), 283-308.

Broverman, I. K., Vogel, S. R., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E. & Rosenkrantz, P. S. Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. *Journal of Social Issues*, 1972, *28*(2), 59-78.

Guttentag, M. & Bray, H. *Undoing sex stereotypes*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1976.

Horner, M. Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts. *Journal of Social Issues*, 1972, *28*(2), 157-175.

Maccoby, E. E. & Jacklin, C. N. *The psychology of sex differences*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1974.

Rosenkrantz, P., Vogel, S., Bee, H., Broverman, I., & Broverman, D. M. Sex-role stereotypes and self-concepts in college students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *32*(3), 287-295.

Rosenthal & Jacobson, *Pygmalion in the classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Tresemer, D. Record of research on fear of success. *Sex Roles*, 1976, *2*, 217-236.

Activity III: For Better or for Worse: Marriage and the Academic Woman (Objectives 1 and 2)

1. Either distribute the Handout: "For Better or for Worse: Marriage and the Academic Woman" (p. 3/101) or make provisions to draw the chart on a chalk board.
2. Review readings in Activity I.

Required Readings:

Feldman, S. D. Escape from the doll's house: Women in graduate and professional school education. A report prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1974, 125-136.

Mead, M. Is college compatible with marriage? In C. Safilios-Rothschild (Ed.), Toward a sociology of women. Lexington, Massachusetts: Xerox College Publishing Co., 1972.

Paloma, M. M. Role conflict and the married professional woman. In C. Safilios-Rothschild (Ed.), Toward a sociology of women. Lexington, Massachusetts: Xerox College Publishing Co., 1972.

Activity IV: Up the Down Staircase: Institutional Barriers (Objective 5)

1. Duplicate copies of the Handout: "Up the Down Staircase: Institutional Barriers" (pp. 3/103-3/105).
2. Review readings in Activities I and III.

Required Readings:

Attwood, C. L. Women in fellowship and training programs. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges, 1972.

Bengelsdorf, W. Women's stake in low tuition. Washington, D.C.: American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1974.

Epstein, C. F. Encountering the male establishment: Sex-status limits on women's careers in the profession. American Journal of Sociology, 1970, 75, 965-982.

Feldman, S. D. Escape from the doll's house: Women in graduate and professional school education. A report prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1974, 101-124.

Roby, P. Structural and internalized barriers to women in higher education. In C. Safilios-Rothschild (Ed.), Toward a sociology of women. Lexington, Massachusetts: Xerox College Publishing, 1972.

Sexton, P. Women in education. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappan Educational Foundation, 1976, 61-73, 121-132.

Silver, P. F. Trends in education: Women in educational leadership--A trend discussion. Columbus, Ohio: The University Council for Educational Administration, n.d.

Activity V: Accepting Responsibility (Objective 4)

1. Duplicate copies of the Handoug: "Accepting Responsibility" (p. 3/107).
2. Duplicate or place copies of "Women in Higher Education Administration" (pp. 3/109-3/115) on reserve.
3. Review the readings in Activities I and III.

Required Readings:

Epstein, C. F. Encountering the male establishment: Sex-status limits on women's careers in the profession. American Journal of Sociology, 1970, 75, 965-982.

Graham, P. A. Status transition of women students, faculty and administrators. In A. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), Academic women on the move. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973.

Hennig, M. & Jardim, A. The managerial woman. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1977, 11-34.

Rich, A. Toward a woman-centered university. In F. Howe (Ed.), Women and the power to change. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975.

Roberts, J. I. Women's right to choose or men's right to dominate. In W. T. Furniss & P. A. Graham (Eds.), Women in higher education. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974.

Shavlik, D. Women in higher education administration. Paper for discussion by the Federation of Organizations of Professional Women, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1975.

Tibbets, S. L. Sex-role stereotyping: Why women discriminate against themselves. Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 1975, 38(4), 177-183.

Activity VI: Current Events (Objectives 1-4)

Required Readings: It is suggested that the following be reviewed for current materials.

Chronicle of Higher Education
(1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036)

Project on the Status and Education of Women Publications

(Association of American Colleges
1818 R Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009)

Women's Equity Action League

(805 15th St., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20005)

Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors

(National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors
1028 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Suite 922
Washington, D.C. 20036)

Women Today

(Today's News Service, Inc.
National Press Building
Washington, D.C. 20045)

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Images of Women in Academia (Objective 1)

The purpose of this activity is to acquaint students with the characteristics and attributes of women in higher education.

1. Distribute the Handout: "Profile: Academic Women" (p. 3/99) in order to generate discussions and to introduce the lecture material.
2. Present a mini-lecture which describes the characteristics of women students, faculty and administrators.
3. Allow the class to discuss points of interest from the lecture and the readings.

Activity II: Appraisal of Research on Socialization (Objective 2)

The purpose of this activity is to familiarize the student with the research on socialization.

1. Have one group of students support the research findings on socialization.
2. Have a second group of students challenge the research findings on socialization.
3. Ask the class to decide whether or not they support the findings on socialization.
4. Ask the class to relate the effects of socialization on the education of women.

Activity III: For Better or for Worse: Marriage and the Academic Woman (Objectives 1 and 2)

The purpose of this activity is to make the students aware of the other duties which accompany the student role. The students will examine these roles as they are affected by sex and marital status.

1. Distribute the Handout: "For Better or for Worse: Marriage and the Academic Woman" (p. 3/101) or display it on a chalkboard or as a transparency.
2. Duplicate or place copies of "Women in Higher Education Administration" (pp. 3/103-3/114) on reserve.
3. Ask the students to list the home and work responsibilities of single, married and divorced students, as well as faculty and administrators.

3. Present stimulus questions to generate discussion, such as
    a. Which role is most conducive to an academic setting? Least conducive? Why?
    b. Is the spouse (where applicable) role a facilitative role?
    c. Do colleges get two employees when they hire male administrators (consider the non-paid service of a wife)? How does this affect the selection of women for administrative positions?

4. Have the students construct a model academic environment which would be equally facilitative to both sexes.

Activity IV: Up the Down Staircase: Institutional Barriers (Objective 5)

The purpose of this activity is to acquaint the students with the position of women on their campus and to familiarize the students with the offices and services responsible for ensuring "affirmative action."

1. Distribute copies of "Up the Down Staircase" exercise (pp. 3/115-3/117).

2. Divide the class into small groups. Assign specific questions to each group or have each group select from the list.

3. Have the groups use available printed materials and interviews to answer the questions.

4. Where possible, ask the students to give information relating to their institution. For example, what is the number of female undergraduates compared to male undergraduates?

5. Tabulate the results of the survey.

6. Invite a panel of guests such as affirmative action officers, members from the committee on the status of women, and top-level administrators to discuss the results and implications of the answers.

Activity V: Accepting Responsibility (Objective 4)

The purpose of this activity is to make the student aware of those attributes of women which are and are not conduceive to academic success. Students will also be asked to devise ways of accentuating strengths and overcoming weaknesses.

Alternative A

1. Distribute copies of the Handout: "Accepting Responsibility" (p. 3/119).

2. Ask each student to list the attributes of women that are conducive to academic success; ask the students to list the attributes of women that are not conducive to academic success.

3. Divide the class into small groups:
    a. Ask the students to describe desirable characteristics for academic success and to list ways of encouraging these traits in academia.
    b. Ask the students to develop strategies for overcoming internal constraints which prevent academic success.

4. Invite the small groups to share some of their discussion with the class.

Alternate B:

1. Invite successful women students, faculty and administrators to the class.

2. Ask the guests to talk about traditional women's personality characteristics which prevent them from achieving academically.

3. Ask the guests to share with the class what personality traits contribute to academic success and how women have to overcome internal and external barriers.

Activity VI: Current Events (Objectives 1-4)

The purpose of this activity is to keep the students informed of the most current news and research on women in academia.

1. Have the class search for current articles that relate to women in higher education.

2. Keep a bulletin board or a scrapbook on current literature concerning academic women.

Activity VII: Reflections (Suggested for students doing special projects)

The purpose of this activity is to give the student a deeper understanding of women in higher education.

Have the students prepare an original essay concerning a woman's higher educational experience (as student, faculty, or administrator). The student may choose to do an autobiography.

Activity VIII: Selected Topics (Suggested for students doing special projects)

The purpose of this activity is to broaden the student's knowledge of women in academia.

Suggest that the students write papers or present reports on topics such as (a) The Black Woman's Experience in Higher Education, (b) The Higher Education of Rurla Women, (c) Women in Professional Schools, (d) A Closer Look at Male/Female Faculty Discrepancies, or (e) Women in Community Colleges.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the characteristics of women in academia?
2. How does the socialization process affect the education of women?
3. How do institutional barriers operate to the disadvantage of women?
4. What are some of the internal forces that perpetuate the status quo of women?

Handout for Activity I

PROFILE: ACADEMIC WOMEN

Which of the following characteristics are typical of women students (true or false)?

______1. Women attending college tend to come from higher socioeconomic backgrounds.

______2. Women pursue studies that lead to non-traditional occupations.

______3. The attrition rate for women is higher than that for men.

______4. The average age for women graduate students is 24.

______5. Married women have fewer adjustments to make as graduate students.

______6. Women comprise more than half of the faculty.

______7. More women faculty teach at two-year colleges than at any other educational institution.

______8. Women often hold part-time positions.

______9. Women's salaries are equal to those of men holding comparable positions.

______10. The academic reward system favors teaching ability.

______11. Women hold faculty rank comparable to men.

______12. Women occupy the lowest paying positions in administration.

______13. About 5-7 percent of the top administrative positions are held by women.

______14. Women presidents are usually found in women's colleges, colleges with religious affiliation, and small institutions.

______15. Women in administrative positions are usually in dead-end jobs.

True statements: 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, and 15

Handout for Activity III

FOR BETTER OR FOR WORSE--MARRIAGE AND THE ACADEMIC WOMAN

	Married		Single		Divorced	
	Home Duties	Work Duties	Home Duties	Work Duties	Home Duties	Work Duties
Student						
Faculty						
Administrator						

Handout for Activity III

Women in Higher Education Administration*

by Donna Shavlik

"Probably the most important single factor in creating an environment that is as hospitable to the aspirations of women as to men is to appoint women in significant numbers to senior faculty and administrative posts in the university" Pat Graham (1972).

Nearly every report on the status of women at colleges and universities discusses the lack of women in administrative posts in higher education.

During 1970-71, Dr. Margaret Arter conducted a survey for the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC). The survey showed that the median number of women in high-level administrative posts was zero. A 1972-73 follow-up NASULGC survey indicated some progress: three institutions were headed by women (including one city university, one system nursing school and one regional campus); the number of women vice presidents or vice chancellors increased from three to nine; and the number of women serving as assistants to the president or chancellor showed the most increase, from six to forty-three.

Dr. Arter's study also included a profile of women in administrative positions in NASULGC institutions. Some of the interesting aspects of the composite profile of these administrative women were that she: resides in the South, was born in the North Central region, is the first born of families with two children, is usually over 50 years old, was generally educated in public institutions in the North, has a salary below $20,000, has helf from one to five positions, has worked in one state, has prime responsibility for personnel and academic programs, plans to remain in administration, and considers the representation of women in administration unfavorable in proportion to the women in her institution.**

Agnes Fecher's study of women in non-traditional positions in public coeducational higher education (1972) corroborates one of Arter's conclusions that women tend to stay at one institution. Fecher's subjects also reported that marriage had no bearing on their positions.

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* Used by permission of Donna Shavlik.

** This paper was presented to the Federation of Organizations of Professional Women, October, 1975. For a complete listing of characteristics, see ERIC abstract cited in the Bibliography.

Pfiffner's study of 26 women in top-level California public community colleges (1972) shows that 73 percent were the only or eldest child. More significantly, the study also discusses the qualities these women considered important for an administrator, such as "the ability to work with others, a strong personal value system, fairness and objectivity, sensitivity toward people, and humor and humility."

Ruth Oltman, in a sample study for AAUW of women administrators and faculty and students in leadership positions (1970) also discussed the minimal number of women in administrative policy-making decisions. She noted that this lack was especially evident in public coeducational institutions. Although more opportunities for women administrators existed in women's colleges, even these colleges had a surprising bumber of male administrators.

The Office of Women in Higher Education has recently completed the first in a series of statistical reports on the numbers of women serving in major administrative posts in accredited institutions of higher education (1975). This report revealed that only 148 of the 2,500 institutions have women as chief executive officers. More specifically, only four institutions with enrollments over 10,000 are headed by women. One hundred and nine of the 148 women presidents are at two-year and four-year church-related colleges. Sixty of the 109 women's colleges have men as presidents.

Additional studies are planned by the Office to report the numbers of women serving as members of governing boards of colleges and universities; in major positions in state postsecondary commissions and divisions; and as provosts, vice presidents, and deans.

Similar studies reporting the numbers of women principals, state education leaders, school board members, and federal government leaders have already been completed and are included in the bibliography accompanying this report. These studies are quite revealing. Not only are there extremely small percentages of women in leadership roles--20 percent of members of state boards of education, 3 percent of junior high school principals, 1 percent of senior high school principals, and .1 percent of local school superintendents, according to the Education Review (1974)--but the number of women in these positions has declined in the last ten years.

Hopefully, the negative trend noted in Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education (1974) for women elementary principals is not true in higher education; in 1928, 55 percent of elementary school principals were women, whereas in 1973 only 19.6 percent were women. Longitudinal studies of women in higher education administration should be done.

More information of the kind just discussed is needed to document what already seems quite apparent to anyone attending national gatherings of higher education leaders--the lack of women. Although it appears that the numbers have increased over the last two years, there are still all too few women in major positions. Certainly, these impressions need to be documented.

Very little research has been done which sheds any light on the reasons that there are so few women in administrative posts in either primary-secondary education or higher education. Edward J. Van Meir, in a recent article in the Journal of NAWDAC (1975), cited several suggested reasons for the lack of women in leadership roles in primary-secondary education: First, women are less well prepared academically to assume leadership roles. In 1966 Taylor reported that only 16 percent of women had two college degrees, whereas 40 percent of men had two degrees. Second, women seem to be less motivated to attain leadership roles. In 1959, Barter found that 46 percent of men elementary teachers expressed interest in principalships, whereas only 7.8 percent of women elementary teachers expressed some interest. Third, women appear to be more transitory than men. According to an NEA study in 1966, 45.2 percent of men, as contrasted with 30.9 percent of women, have been with one school system. And, fourth, according to NEA, women do interrupt their careers to raise families.

Since these same kinds of data that have been compiled on women in elementary-secondary education are not available on women in higher education, possibly incorrect assumptions and generalizations may be inferred about the preparation and choices of women in higher education. There are some indicators which might show these populations of women to be quite different.

From its "Workshop for Women Considering Careers in College and University Administration" held in April, 1974, the Office of Women learned, both from the large number of applicants and from those who were selected, that significant numbers of women are interested in administration and already serving in middle-level positions. A questionnaire recently sent to participants revealed that over one-half of those who responded have been promoted in the yera since the workshop was conducted.

At the "Invitational Seminar on Identification, Recommendation, and Placement of Women in Higher Education Administration" in May, 1975, the existence of interested and qualified women was confirmed and new information added. Organized in response to an expressed desire on the part of a number of women's groups that efforts toward the advancement of women be coordinated, the seminar was held and several major themes emerged from it:

- An abundance of women with the academic and administrative experience, professional credentials, and personal qualities necessary for top-level positions are available.
- Personal recommendations are a vital factor in helping women obtain such positions.
- Talented women need greater visibility.
- The usefulness to women of referral services and rosters is somewhat limited.
- Geographic considerations affect job referral success for women and for men, but the extent of male/female differential is not known.
- The exchange of information and perspectives among all organizations present broadened the knowledge of each and contributed to an increased sense of direction.

In addition to the workshop and the seminar, the Office of Women has participated in numerous conferences, seminars, and workshops for and about women in administration. This experience has reinforced the conviction that women with impeccable credentials do exist and must be brought to the attention of those in positions of power in academe. The Office of Women is equally certain that there are significant numbers of women with high potential for executive positions who need to be encouraged to consider administration.

This certainty is based on the fact that at least three times as many women have applied for the selective workshops attended or held by the Office than could be accomodated. Further support substantiating women's interest in administration is found in recent studies of the U.S. Professoriate by

Lipsett and Ladd lead to a possible conclusion that some very real differences may exist for women in higher education from those reported by Dr. Van Meir for elementary-secondary women educators. Indeed, research on women today in elementary-secondary education might reflect new feelings of independence, self-confidence, and discovery of personal rights being experienced by women in education.

However, additional research reported by Dr. Van Meir may have more relevance for higher education. He discusses a study of women in leadership positions in North Carolina done by Norman in 1970 which revealed that women leaders participating in the study were more intelligent, more abstract in their thinking, and had higher scholastic capacity than 91.8 percent of the general population. Also, Grobman in 1956 found that women were more effective elementary school principals than men.

Dr. Van Meir and the persons cited in his article have added to our knowledge of the societal limitations and the excellent capabilities of women. We need these types of data on women in leadership roles in higher education. It is appropriate here to state again that while it is useful to look at the research on elementary and secondary education, it is not wise to generalize from it to women in higher education. For example, the choice to prepare for a career in higher education may be a very important variable in the research.

Most of the written material on women in higher education administration deals with the observed lack of women in leverage posts and usually postulates reasons that women are underrepresented in these major positions. Reasons most often mentioned include the lack of opportunities for experiences which develop administrative skills, the absence of encouragement to attain significant positions, the small number of women role models, the inability of those presently in decision-making posts to see potential leadership qualities in women, and the fear of success and other socially induced, inadequate self-perceptions.

In order to increase the numbers of women in leadership positions as well as to add to the numbers of women aspiring to and planning for careers in administration, research on the following topics is needed:

- Successful women administrators
- Women who have aspired to and failed to attain administrative positions

- Conditions which seem to nurture women in leadership roles
- Differences in actual and perceived performance of women and men in leadership roles
- Differences in opportunities afforded men and women to gain the experience and training necessary for successful administrative advancement
- The usefulness of work on state education boards, national and regional education associations, and accrediting associations toward building successful careers in higher education administration
- Differences in the values, beliefs, and conceptual structures of men and women
- Differences in qualities of leadership believed important by men and women administrators

Research on these topics could take many forms--from general surveys to interviews, to case histories, to sophisticated attitudinal research. Additions to this list of topics are in order.

One excellent example of the interview technique appears in a recent article on five women chief librarians (Gell, 1975). A profile of each woman describes her philosophy of administration, examines her goals, comments on her leadership style, and presents information on what is unique to her success. Gell also includes general statistics which show that even in this female-dominated profession (84 percent of librarians are female), an overwhelming percentage of the chief librarians are men.

The Office of Women recognizes that although research is necessary to build a firm foundation for programs to advance women in administration, a large number of women are both keenly interested in and already well prepared for careers in higher education administration. The Office is therefore building a study-and-action program to increase the number of women administrators. The action aspects are designed to improve the visibility and recognition of women, and the study aspects to increase understanding and encourage elimination of barriers to women's advancement in higher education administration.

- National Program for the Identification and Advancement of Women in Higher Education Administration

  A pilot program for a state-based system which identifies women ready now for high-level positions in higher education and assists them in securing such positions
- Washington Invitational Seminars for Women in Administrative Positions in Higher Education

  An opportunity for women administrators to discuss and contribute to educational policy formulation at the federal level
- Career Seminars for Women Considering Higher Education Administration

  Continuation of programs to provide exposure to the components of higher education administration, with attention given to the specific concerns of women
- Series of Reports on Women in Higher Education Administration

  A series of statistical reports, leadership profiles, and case histories of women in administration
- Invitational Seminars for Individuals and Groups Engaged in Programs to Advance Women in Higher Education Administration

  Continuation of programs for those who are engaged in overcoming systemic and personal barriers to advancement for women in educational administration
- Research on the Import of Search Committees on the Advancement of Women in Educational Administration /

  Analysis of the search-and-selection process from the perspectives of committee members, successful candidates, aspiring candidates, trustees, administrators, and persons frequently asked for nominations
- Career Education Materials on Women in Higher Education Administration

  Brochures and other materials designed to help women explore higher education administration as a realistic career choice

WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

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Handout for Activity IV

UP THE DOWN STAIRCASE: INSTITUTIONAL BARRIERS

The following instrument is not a validated survey, but it can be used to help in identifying the barriers facing women in higher education. Use catalogues, reports, and other printed materials to obtain your information. Interviews with affirmative action officers and members of the Commission on the Status of Women may be able to supply you with the necessary information.

Instructions: Please read the statements below and mark whether they are true or false at your own academic setting.

____1. The percentage of women admitted as undergraduates is equal to the number of men students admitted.

____2. The percentage of women admitted to Master's programs or professional schools is equal to the number of men students admitted. (Look at overall figures, and break down by programs.)

____3. The percentage of women admitted to the doctoral programs is equal to the number of men students admitted. (Check overall enrollment as well as specific program areas.)

____4. The distribution of financial aid at the undergraduate level is equitably distributed by sex.

____5. The distribution of financial aid at the graduate level is equitable distributed by sex (relative to program numbers).

____6. The counseling services provide sex-fair career materials and counseling advice.

____7. College catalogs, handbooks, and other publications do not portray sexist images of students.

____8. Course content gives equitable treatment to men and women (for example, history courses including women).

____9. Scheduling of classes and graduation requirements create no hardships for women students.

____10. Child-care facilities, including infant care, are provided for a large number of woman students. (Check to see how long waiting lists are for relative efficiency.)

____11. Continuing education programs are offered for women desiring to return to school.

____12. Women's groups are actively involved in improving the status of women on campus.

____13. Women's athletic programs receive as much coverage and funding as men's athletic programs.

____14. Women students hold positions of leadership on campus.

____15. A plan to comply with Title IX has been implemented.

____16. There are no differences between ranks of women and men faculty. (If these figures are not available, AAUP has estimates based on information provided by the university.)

____17. There are no differences between salaries of women and men faculty.

____18. Faculty promotions are based on a wide range of criteria, including reaching and public service, as well as publications and research

____19. Women students interact with faculty both formally and informally as often as men students.

____20. Faculty publish articles and engage in research with female students as often as with male students (can't be mandated, but can be checked from yearly publication record).

____21. Proportionately as many women as men faculty have tenure.

____22. Women faculty show interest and commitment to teaching women's studies.

____23. Women faculty are organized toward improving the status of women.

____24. An effective grievance procedure has been established.

____25. There are substantial numbers of women in administrative positions.

____26. Women holding administrative positions receive pay comparable to that of their male counterparts.

____27. Women in administration are in positions of power and decision making.

____28. The "old boy network" has been formally replaced by affirmative action policies.

____29. Women administrators help other women to progress in their careers.

____30. The university provides adequate training opportunities for women desiring to advance into administrative positions.

____31. The university has an equal representation of women on the board of trustees.

____32. The library has extensive holdings of materials concerning women.

____33. The health center offers full gynecological services.

____34. Top-level administrators support the improvement of the status of women.

Scoring Procedures

1 point for each true statement
0 points for false statement

27-34 points -- exemplary model - your institution obviously has an affirmative action plan that's working
18-26 points -- typical syndrome - your institution has probably met the minimum qualifications for affirmative action, but there's still ground to cover
9-17 points -- something's not working - start probing around to see if there really is institutional support for the improvement of women's status
0-16 points -- you've got to be kidding - how has your institution managed to evade prosecution?

Handout for Activity V-A

ACCEPTING RESPONSIBILITY

List the attributes of women conducive to academic success	List the attributes of women not conducive to academic success

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LESSON 4

USING A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO UNDERSTAND THE SYSTEM

OBJECTIVES

1. To explain the structure of higher educational institutions using a systems approach.
2. To identify sources of possible resistance to changing the status of women in higher education.
3. To develop a change strategy for women, using a social action model.

NARRATIVE

In order to improve the status of women in education, changes must be implemented. Before these changes can be effected, it is imperative to understand the operation of an educational institution as a system. The educational institution must be studied in its totality, and the relationship among the various components must be analyzed. Any change which occurs in a system affects the other parts. Therefore, to effectively implement change for women, it is necessary to understand the system and to plan for change in ways which are conducive to the effectiveness of the existing operation.

According to Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975), a systems perspective is essential to understanding organizational structure. Bertrand (1967) described the social systems model as one designed to help visualize certain human collectives as systems with interdependent parts (unities) which are interlinked with one another through mutual dependencies.

The general systems theory concept pioneered by Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968), takes a wide variety of systems and analyzes the total operation by viewing the interdependent relationships of the parts. A patterned functioning relationship exists among components. In other words, a system consists of various components which have existing relationships, and the components function through their relationships with one another. A system may be defined as a number of components or subsystems which can be related according to some plan to achieve a given purpose or objective (Rice & Bishoprick, 1971).

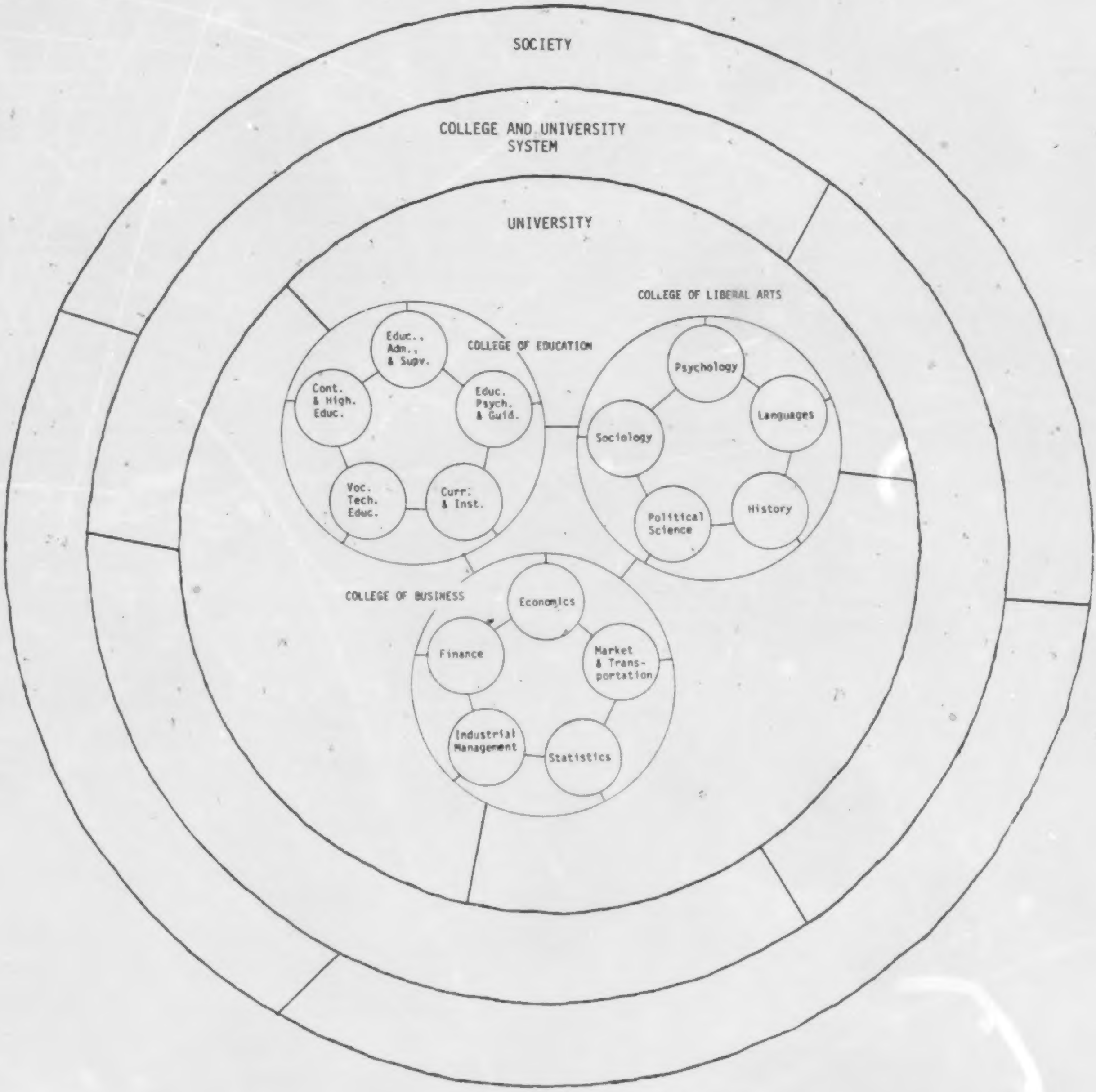
The whole organizational system can be considered to comprise a number of subsystems and sub-subsystems (Rice & Bishoprick, 1971). Bobbitt (1974) defined subsystems as the formally designated parts of the organization. A social system may be defined as two or more people involved in goal-directed interaction who are guided by patterns of shared symbols and expectations (Bertrand, 1967). A social system is only one of a classification which also includes biological, ecological, and anatomical systems. Since this unit addresses human interactions, only social systems will be considered. Organizational elements have a mutual interdependence and cannot be regarded as completely separate and independent (Porter et al., 1975). Rice and Bishoprick (1971) proposed that the systems approach be used to analyze an organization as a whole, thus reducing the tendency to suboptimize the various parts of the system.

Bennis, Benne, and Chin (1966) visualized a system as a large circle. Within the large circle are smaller circles, which represent the components, and lines are drawn connecting components to each other and to the larger circle. The lines may be thought of as rubber bands or springs which stretch or contract as the forces increase or decrease. When force is applied to one component, the reaction is felt by the others. Outside the circle is the environment, where all other factors impinging upon the system are located.

To use an example from the university setting, the Department of Educational Psychology is considered a subsystem of the College of Education. The

College of Education is a subsystem of the university that is a subsystem of the college and the university system. See Figure I for a graphic description. The Department of Educational Psychology may seem autonomous with its unique functions, but a closer look reveals that the department is an extension of a larger system and that each part is interrelated. Although several systems and subsystems can be identified, Rice and Bishoprick (1971) claimed that there is a hierarchy of systems within the total organization.

Figure I


SOCIETY
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY SYSTEM
UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
Educ., Adm., & Supv.
Educ. Psych. & Guid.
Cont. & High. Educ.
Voc. Tech. Educ.
Curr. & Inst.
COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
Psychology
Languages
Sociology
History
Political Science
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
Economics
Finance
Market & Transportation
Industrial Management
Statistics

Hills (1968) stated that unless one knows the elements involved in a system, the relevant properties of those entities, and the relations among those properties, the chances of changing the system are slight. Attempts to integrate women into the mainstream of higher education have often failed because the properties of existing elements were not analyzed.

Loomis (1967) contended that the processes are tools which provide an understanding of social systems. Social system processes concurrently articulate or involve more than one element of a social system. Each process can be utilized as an analytical tool for studying human behavior.

Hills (1968) stated that the goal attainment of an organization is based on its performing a function on behalf of the society of which it is a part. Accordingly, there are four classifications toward which organizational functions are oriented: (1) economic production (business firms), (2) attainment of collective goals (government organizations), (3) integration (hospitals), and (4) the expression and maintenance of cultural patterns of the units of the systems (schools).

The responsibility of the patterns maintenance unit (schools) is to maintain the system in its specific patterned state, and to avoid changes in the direction of increased solidarity, effectiveness, or utility. The pattern maintenance unit is not adaptive to its environment and maintains the integrity of its own value pattern. It is expected to maintain its integrity in the face of environmental changes (Hills, 1968). Thus, it can be reasoned why educational institutions do not welcome programs for women which upset the status quo. Accordingly, Havelock (1973a) cited absences of valid scientific research findings, the lack of change agents to promote new educational ideas, and the lack of economic incentive to adopt innovations as reasons for educational systems not initiating change. Movements for women in educational institutions often fall short of their goals because the leaders of the movement fail to substantiate their cause with validated research; they do not understand the role of a change agent, and they do not present the economic advantage of the change. However, Rice and Bishoprick (1971) felt that a systems approach could be used to force a change in the traditional way of doing things in an organization. An understanding of the systems approach and an appreciation of change forces are particularly vital to anyone attempting to change the status of women in institutions.

The notion that people and organizations resist change is disputed by Spicer (1958). He said that the numerous technological advances we have adopted prove that people do accept change. Porter et al. (1975) thought that organizations must constantly change in order to survive. However, Watson (1971) illustrated that there are forces within the individual and the organization which resist change. He claimed that because organizations and individuals are more satisfied interacting in familiar ways, they must be taught to view change as possibly beneficial. Women must demonstrate institutional advantages of upgrading their position.

Havelock (1973a) said that people want to maintain the status quo even when outsiders know that change is required. He proposed that change agents be employed to prod and pressure the system to start working on its problems. Havelock (1973b) acknowledged that many changes in education are generated by those dissatisfied with the status quo. However, Havelock (1973b) recognized that these people often lack formal authority to change the situation and must develop strategies to predispose their concerns.

Committees for the status of women have been established on many campuses as a result of women's dissatisfaction with the system. This kind of formal recognition affords women more authority to change the system. Rogers (1971) presented nine propositions which demonstrate the dynamics of social change within a social structure. These are presented in Table I.

These principles can be applied to the efforts to initiate programs for women. Without the support or approval of key people, the success of such attempts are usually futile. However, by analyzing the structural processes, change programs can be designed which use the existing structure in facilitative ways.

TABLE I

Propositions of Change*

1. Social structure acts to impede or to facilitate the rate of diffusion and adoption of new ideas through system effects.
2. Diffusion can change the social structure of a social system.
3. Power elites act as gatekeepers to prevent restructuring innovations that do not immediately threaten to change the system structure.
4. A system's social structure helps determine the nature and distribution of an innovation's consequence.
5. Top-down change in a system, which is initiated by the power elites, is more likely to succeed than is bottom-up change.
6. Bottom-up change involves a greater degree of conflict than top-down change.
7. Bottom-up change is more likely to be successful at times of perceived crises in a system.
8. Bottom-up change is more likely to be successful when a social movement is headed by a charismatic leader.
9. The role of the charismatic leader in a social movement decreases as the movement becomes institutionalized into a more highly structured organization.

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*This table, drawn from information in "Social Structure and Social Change" by Everett M. Rogers, is reprinted from American Behavioral Scientist, Vol. 14, No. 5 (May/June 1971), pp. 767-782 by permission of the publisher, Sage Publications, Inc.

The social systems model states that change in any part of the system affects the total organization. Since systems are protective of their components, it is essential that one use a systems approach in implementing change. Havelock (1973) outlined six steps for the change agent who wishes to initiate change in educational systems (see Table II). The first task for the change agent is to establish contact and build relationships with the people she/he wants to help. For example, as a consultant to a college wanting to provide management training for its female employees, it would be necessary to get to know faculty, administrators and students involved in the project and to become aware of their needs and interests. Once this relationship has been established, the change agent can work with them collaboratively in a step-by-step problem-solving process. The change agent must then find out if the client is aware of her/his own needs and if the client can articulate those needs in problem statements.

Upon further investigation, the consultant may discover that hiring practices, promotion criteria, and the informal network system prevent women from entering top-level positions. However, the consultant may find the administration reluctant to change, because this would mean adopting new hiring and promotion practices and possibly disrupting the status quo in formal interactions. After defining the problem, the agent must be able to identify and obtain resources relevant to solutions. Because of the consultant's experience in implementing management training programs for women and her/his knowledge in the field, the consultant is able to suggest resources relevant to solutions. The client must then consider the implications, generate a range of alternatives, and settle upon a potential solution. The consultant discusses the research findings and suggests various means for initiating women's management training programs. Together the consultant and the committee for women's training programs decide which approach to implement. After a solution has been developed and adopted, it needs to be moved toward acceptance and adoption by the widest possible margin in the client system. The consultant and the committee must now persuade others to accept their plan. Finally, the client needs to develop an internal capacity to maintain the innovation. It is then the responsibility of the consultant to show the interested party how they can become their own change agents by building an internal capacity for diagnosis, retrieval, and problem solving (Havelock, 1973b).

This approach is being used by more educators who are attempting to initiate programs to improve the status of women. The systems approach was implemented by Hansen (1977) in an effort to initiate PROJECT BORN FREE. BORN FREE is a collaborative training and development effort aimed at reducing career-related sex-role stereotyping in educational institutions. According to Hansen, by using the systems approach, all parts of the system could be examined and determinations could be made as to how change in one part of the institution influenced other parts. The Havelock model was used in this project to initiate change.

A more detailed social action model for initiating change is outlined by Boone and Quinn (1966). The stages in this social action model include: (a) analysis of the existing social system, (b) convergence of interests, (c) analysis of the prior social situation, (d) delineation of relevant social systems, (e) initiation, (f) legitimation by key figures in the social systems, (g) decision by the target system to act, (h) formulation of goals, (i) decision on means to be used, (j) development of plan of action, (k) mobilization of resources, (l) action, and (m) evaluation. Both of these models utilize the systems approach for initiating change.

Table II

Havelock's Six Stages: Change Agent as Process Helper*

Stage I:	Building a Relationship (between change agent and client)
Stage II:	Diagnosing the Problem
Stage III:	Acquiring Relevant Resources
Stage IV:	Choosing the Solution
Stage V:	Gaining Acceptance
Stage VI:	Stabilizing the Innovation and Generating Self-Renewal

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*Adapted from Planning for Innovation Through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge by R. G. Havelock, Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1973.

The purpose of this lesson is to provide a systems approach to understanding organizations and to offer suggestions for effectively implementing change for women in educational institutions. By visualizing how change affects systems and individuals, changes for women can be initiated which take these forces into account.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the required bibliographic entries. Select the objectives and activities most congruent with the goals of your class and assign the student readings accordingly.

Activity I: Understanding the System (Objective 1)

1. Prepare a lecture on the systems model and explain the advantage of using a systems approach to understanding organizational behaviors.
2. Use the narrative and the entries in the required reading list in preparing the lecture. Make copies or transparencies of the tables and figure (pp. 3/143-3/147) to use in the lecture.
3. Duplicate copies of "How Academic Women Fit into the System" (pp. 3/149-3/151).

Related Readings:

Bertrand, A.L. Basic sociology: An introduction to theory and method. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967, 20-36.

Loomis, C.P. Social systems: Essays on their persistence and change. Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1967, 1-37.

Porter, L.W., Lawler, E.E. & Hackman, J.R. Behavior in organizations. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975, 98-100.

Rice, G.H., Jr., & Bishoprick, D.W. Conceptual models of organization: The systems model. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1971, 163-180.

Activity II: But We've Always Done It This Way (Objective 2)

Related Readings:

Rogers, E.M. Social structure and social change. American Behavioral Scientist, 1971, 14(5), 767-782.

Watson, G. Resistance to change. American Behavioral Scientist, 1971, 14(5), 745-766.

Activity III: Taking Action (Objective 3)

1. Duplicate or place copies of "A Conceptual Analysis of Social Action" (pp. 3/158-3/168) on reserve.

2. Duplicate copies of the "Social Action Model" (pp. 3/153-3/156).

Related Readings:

Boone, E.J. and Quinn, E.H. A conceptual analysis of social action. Paper prepared for the National Extension Education Curriculum Seminar, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, February 1966.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Understanding the System (Objective 1)

1. Present a lecture on the systems model and explain the advantages of using a systems approach to understanding organizational behavior.

2. Distribute copies of "How Academic Women Fit into the System" (pp. 3/149-3/151).
   a. Divide the class into small groups so they can work on the exercise.
   b. Ask the groups to share their experience with the class.

3. Generate classroom discussion by asking stimulus questions such as:
   a. How can the systems approach assist in analyzing the status of academic women?
   b. Why is it important to visualize the interrelatedness of systems?

Activity II: But We've Always Done It This Way (Objective 2)

1. Divide the class into two groups.

2. Have one group form an inner circle and have the other form an outer circle.

3. Have items requiring a system change written on a piece of paper and let a member from the outer circle draw an item. Possible item topics:
   a. How to funnel money into women's sports in an effort to equalize the program.
   b. How to initiate goals for hiring practice.
   c. How to increase the number of female faculty in the Department of Educational Administration.
   d. How to make salary scales equitable for both sexes.

4. The outer circle should attempt to persuade the inner circle to adopt the proposed changes.

5. The inner circle should offer resistance to the changes that are proposed.

6. Process the activity by asking the outer circle (the group proposing change) how they felt about their efforts. Ask the inner circle (the group resisting change) about their feelings. Ask the groups if the inner and outer circle held any symbolic significance in proposing or resisting change.

7. Have the inner circle become the outer circle and propose change, and the outer circle become the inner circle and resist change.

8. Process the activity and ask whether it is easier to initiate or resist change.

9. Ask students how the systems approach can be utilized to initiate change and to understand resistance to change.

Activity III: Taking Action (Objective 3)

1. Divide the class into small groups so that they can work on projects outside the classroom.

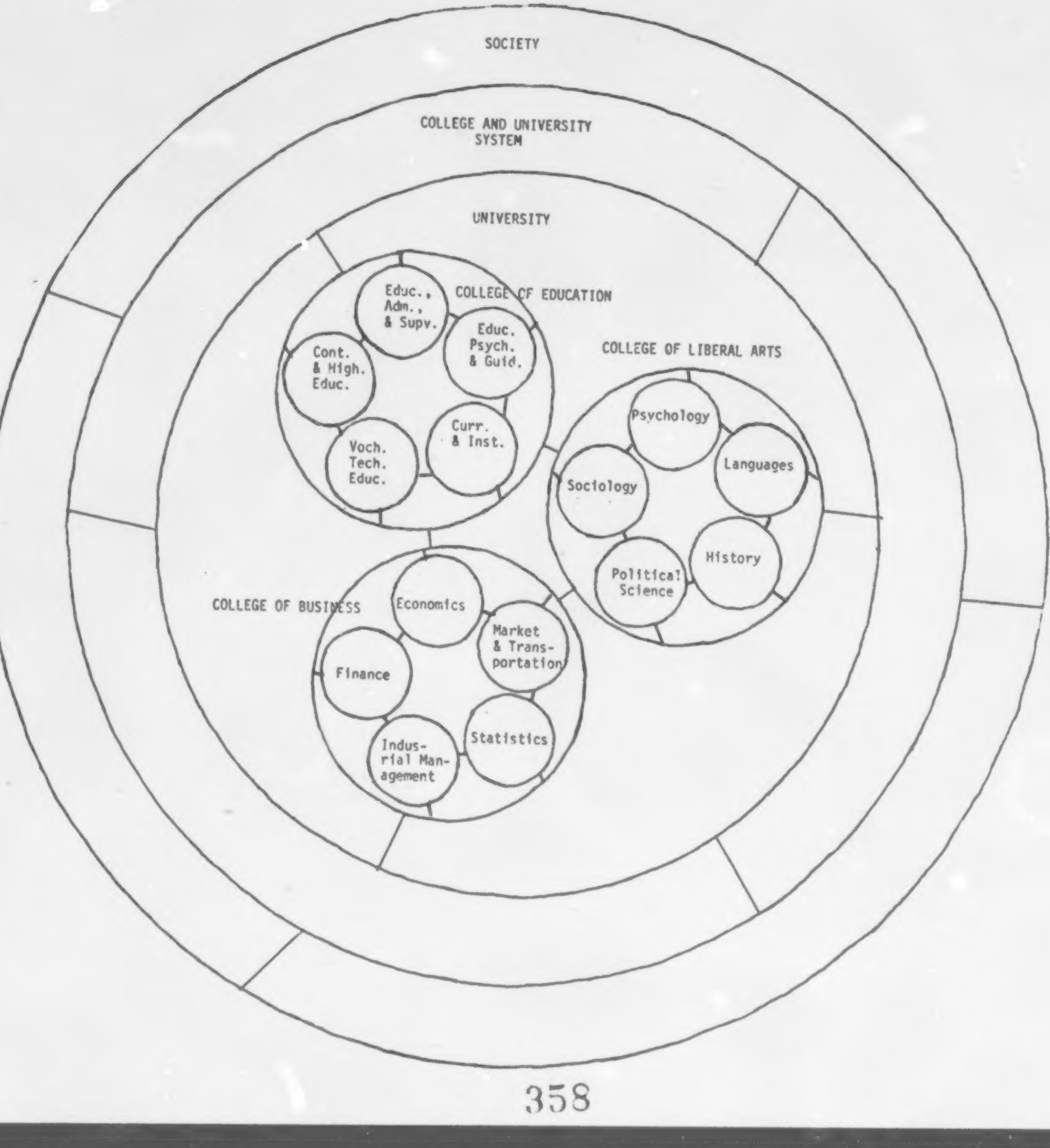
2. Let the groups decide on some programs (see recommendations at the end of the chapters in the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education, 1973, for suggestions) which they feel need to be initiated in order to change the status of academic women.

3. Distribute copies of the "Social Action Model (pp. 3/153-3/156) and let the students devise a plan for initiating change which encompasses the model concepts.

4. Have the groups make class presentations, explaining how they worked through the "Social Action Model."

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How do educational institutions function as systems?
2. Using the systems model, explain possible resistance to change to programs for women in higher education.
3. How can the social action model be used to implement change programs for women in educational institutions?


SOCIETY
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY SYSTEM
UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
Educ., Adm., & Supv.
Educ. Psych. & Guid.
Cont. & High. Educ.
Curr. & Inst.
Voch. Tech. Educ.
COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
Psychology
Languages
Sociology
History
Political Science
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
Economics
Market & Transportation
Finance
Statistics
Industrial Management

Handout for Activity I

Figure I

Handout for Activity I

Table I

PROPOSITIONS OF CHANGE*

1. Social structure acts to impede or to facilitate the rate of diffusion and adoption of new ideas through system effects.
2. Diffusion can change the social structure of a social system.
3. Power elites act as gatekeepers to prevent restructuring innovations that do not immediately threaten to change the system structure.
4. A system's social structure helps determine the nature and distribution of an innovation's consequence.
5. Top-down change in a system, which is initiated by the power elites, is more likely to succeed than is bottom-up change.
6. Bottom-up change involves a greater degree of conflict than top-down change.
7. Bottom-up change is more likely to be successful at times of perceived crises in a system.
8. Bottom-up change is more likely to be successful when a social movement is headed by a charismatic leader.
9. The role of the charismatic leader in a social movement decreases as the movement becomes institutionalized into a more highly structured organization.

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Handout for Activity I

Table II

HAVELOCK'S SIX STAGES: CHANGE AGENT AS PROCESS HELPER*

Stage I:	Building a Relationship (between change agent and client)
Stage II:	Diagnosing the Problem
Stage III:	Acquiring Relevant Resources
Stage IV:	Choosing the Solution
Stage V:	Gaining Acceptance
Stage VI:	Stabilizing the Innovation and Generating Self-Renewal

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*Adapted from Planning for Innovation Through Dissemination and Utilization of Knowledge by R. G. Havelock, Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1973.

Handout for Activity I

HOW ACADEMIC WOMEN FIT INTO THE SYSTEM

Instructions: For each of the statements below, try to answer the question as it relates to academic women in your department, college, university, educational system, or society. Please use additional paper if necessary.

Question	Department	College	University	Educational System	Society
Elements					
1. What are the beliefs regarding the role of women in higher education?	(for example) The role of women in academia should be similar to the role of men.	The role of women in academia should be similar to the role of men.	Promote equal opportunities if if doesn't upset the status quo.	Reflecting view of society.	The Constitution says that all people are equal.
2. What are the sentiments?	(for example) To insure equality programs need to be initiated.	By believing in equality the situation will take care of itself.	Federal regulations require appearance of promoting equality.	Must implement federal mandated programs to achieve equality.	Some see women's roles as equal; others as separate but not equal.
3. What are the objectives concerning the status of women students?					
4. What are the norms for women in academia?					

Question	Department	College	University	Educational System	Society
5. What is the status of women and what are their roles?					
6. What is the rank of women?					
7. What sources of power do women have?					
Processes 1. How is information regarding women communicated?	(for example) Department members usually communicate informally with one another.	By informal group processes and by memos issued from other offices.	Through the formal and informal network.	By funneling information from society to institutions and vice versa.	Through news media, printed materials, informal groups.
2, What boundary maintenance activities are employed to protect the identity of the system?					
3. What is the linkage process among the systems?					

Question	Department	College	University	Educational System	Society
4. What socialization techniques are utilized for women?					
5. What social controls are employed to handle deviance and nonconformity?					
6. Which patterns of behavior have become legitimized for women?					
7. How do social changes affect the system?					

3/151

Handout for Activity III

SOCIAL ACTION MODEL*

Instructions: Decide on a program that needs to be initiated in order to change the status of academic women. Work through the social action model in implementing the change (see the recommendation listed at the end of the chapters in the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education, 1973, for possible suggestions).

1. Analysis of the existing social systems:
   a. Which systems and subsystems will be affected by this change?

2. Convergence of interest:
   a. What is the definition of the problem?

   b. What are the goals?

   c. What are the means of action?

3. Analysis of the prior social situation:
   a. What leadership patterns, power relations, status roles, expectations, beliefs and sentiments exist in the social system?

   b. What is the communications network?

   c. What methods and appeals have worked previously? Which ones have failed?

4. Delineation of relevant social systems:
   a. Who are the people that will be affected by the change (the target group)?

   b. Which systems represent the needs and interests of the people of the target group?

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*Adapted from E. J. Boone and E. H. Quinn, A conceptual analysis of social action. Prepared for the National Extension Education Curriculum Seminar. Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, February 1966. Printed with permission of the authors.

c. What power structure has the power to legitimate the programs?

5. Initiation:
   a. Identify persons who should consult with the key leaders of the relevant social system.

6. Legitimation with key power figures of social systems:
   a. Who are the formal leaders (people in official positions of authority) that need to give approval to the program?

   b. Who are the informal leaders who need to give approval to the program?

7. Diffusion:
   a. Develop a plan to convince the relevant systems that a problem exists. Incorporate any suggestions from leaders.

   b. Develop a plan to diffuse the basic ideas of the program to the target system.

   c. Are different plans needed for different groups?

   d. Who should diffuse the plan?

8. Definition of need by the more general relevant social system:
   a. How are you going to educate or convince the relevant social systems that a problem exists?

   b. What techniques will be utilized?

9. Decision by the target system to act:
   a. How are you going to get the target group to agree that a problem exists?

b. Can you get a commitment from the people to act in relation to the problem?

10. Formulation of goals:
    a. Allow the target group or groups to whom this authority has been delegated to formalize group objectives and goals.

    b. What are the short-term, intermediate, and long-term goals?

11. Decision on means to be used:
    a. What are the alternative means or methods and their consequences for reaching the goals?

    b. Which means should be used to attain the stated goals?

12. Development of plan of work:
    a. List the goals to be accomplished.

    b. Describe specific methods and actions for achieving goals.

    c. Depict an organizational structure and designate persons and groups responsible for actions to be taken.

    d. Consider whether training is required to enable those responsible to accomplish the assigned actions.

13. Mobilization of resources:
    a. What resources need to be obtained or organized in order to carry out the program?

14. Action:
    a. Decide whether the action plan is to be carried out in a monophasic or multiphasic framework.

15. Evaluation:
    a. Establish formative evaluation techniques.

    b. Establish summative evaluation techniques.

NOTES

Handout for Activity III

A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL ACTION[1]

The major foundation of the Cooperative Extension Service, or for that matter any publicly supported organization whose chief function is the education of people, is the application of systematic and appropriate knowledge to human affairs for the purpose of creating intelligent action and change. Specifically the Service's efforts are of a conscious, deliberate, and collaborative nature—designed to improve the operation of a system—whether it be a self-system, social system, or cultural system—through the proper utilization of scientific knowledge and tested experiences.

Granted that the self-system often constitutes the initial target in the change process, the Service must also concern itself with "collective" change that affects large aggregates of people. It is with the latter "social action" that this treatise is concerned. The "collective behavior" emphasis does not deny the importance of the individual or family decision-making units. Rather emphasis is focused on those types of decisions that man finds he must or prefers to make with larger aggregates to maximize his satisfactions. Man finds that he is involved with many coordinate decisions in his neighborhood, formal groups, institutions, community, county, area, state, and, perhaps, nation. It is to this larger decision-making arena that the concept "social action" has been traditionally applied.

If "group" decisions are made and action is carried out, a plurality or at least a majority of the relevant power holders within and external to the target system must express itself coordinately in decision and action. Hence, the real challenge confronting the Adult Educator (change agent) is that of acquiring conceptual tools for understanding and utilizing the social action process as a means for facilitating and effecting "collective behavior and action."

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[1] Prepared by Edgar J. Boone and Emily H. Quinn for the National Extension Education Curriculum Seminar, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, February 1966. Printed with permission of the authors.

Relevant Dimensions of the Social Action Concept

1. Social Action Defined

   a. Social action as defined here is planned collaborative change that is consciously evoked through the alteration of the systemic attributes of society and subsystems through the development of new systems and the alterations of old ones.

   b. Social action is the result of collective behavior (effort) (interaction) elicited from forces within and outside of a given target system(s).

      (1) Collective behavior and/or action connotes general agreement and commitment to act on the part of a plurality or at least a majority of those who constitute the power structure within a given system or systems.

      (2) Internal forces refer to motivational forces arising from interaction within the system.

      (3) External forces refer to motivational forces that impinge upon the system from outside.

      (4) Interaction occurs in any event in which one party tangibly influences the overt action or the state of mind of the other. It is a reciprocal and interdependent activity, designated as having the quality of complementarity or double contingency. Characteristics of interaction include:

      — a plurality of actors

      — communication between the actors by means of a set of symbols

      — a duration or time dimension [illegible] past, present, and future which in part dete[illegible] of the on-going action

      — an "objective" whose specificat[illegible] of the actors may or may not coinc[illegible]tive observer.

   c. Assumptions implicit in social action

      (1) Action takes place in situations; human beings act in situations including relevant aspects of the physical and social world.

(2) Action is conducted in terms of anticipated states of affairs; human beings orient their behavior toward ends, objectives, or goals—or otherwise attempt to adjust to anticipated states of affairs.

(3) Action is motivated; human beings expend energy or effort in carrying out their action and, hence, demonstrate "motivation."

(4) Action is normatively regulated; human beings conduct themselves in an orderly fashion, thereby indicating "regulation" or the normative orientation of activity.

2. A Conceptual Approach to the Analysis of Social Action

a. Actors — refers to the persons involved in social action. They generally include the change agent who may be internal or external to the target system, the influentials (power structure) within the target system and the doers. The actors may vary depending on the arena or social action or the specific functions performed within a given social action program.

b. A social system is composed of the patterned interaction of members. It is constituted of the action of a plurality of individual actors whose relations to each other are mutually oriented through the definition and mediation of a pattern or structured and shared symbols and expectations.

(1) Elements and elemental processes. At any given moment in time, a given social system's structure may be described in terms of the following elements:

(a) End, goal, or objective (achieving) — refers to those changes which members of the system expect to accomplish through appropriate interaction.

(b) Facility (facilitating) — refers to the means used by the system to attain its ends.

(c) Norms (norming) — refers to the rules or criteria which prescribe what is acceptable or unacceptable for both individuals and group action in any social system.

(d) Status-role (dividing the function) — refers to that which is to be expected from an incumbent in any social position. The two-word entity, status-role, contains the concept of status, a structural element implying position, and the concept role, a functional position.

(e) Rank (ranking) — the value an actor has for the system in which the rating is accorded.

(f) Power (controlling) — refers to the capacity of control others. There are two major forms of power—authority and influence. Authority is the right as determined by the members of the system to control others. Influence is the control over others which is not built into the authority component of the status-role, but results from the willingness of the subordinate to become involved by the subordinate.

(g) Sanction (sanctioning) — refers to the rewards and penalties meted out by the members of a social system as a device for inducing conformity to its norms and ends.

(h) Belief (knowing) — refers to any cognitive proposition about any aspect of the universe that is accepted as true.

(i) Sentiment (feeling) — refers to expressive feelings about the world, irrespective of the cause of the feeling.

(2) Master processes (these have special importance in understanding social systems).

(a) Communication — refers to the process by which information, decisions, and directives are transmitted among actors and the ways in which knowledge, opinions, and attitudes are formed or modified by interaction.

(b) Boundary maintenance — refers to the process whereby the identity of the social system is preserved and the characteristic interaction pattern is maintained.

(c) Systemic linkage — refers to the process whereby one or more of the elements of at least two social systems is articulated in such a manner that the two social systems in some ways and on occasions may be viewed as a single unit.

(d) Institutionalization — refers to the process through which organizations are given structure and social action and interaction are made predictable.

(e) Socialization — refers to the process through which the social and cultural heritage is transmitted.

(f) Social control — refers to the process by which deviancy is either eliminated or somehow made compatible with the functioning of the social groups.

(3) Conditions for social action — these include components that influence the system and are, to a certain extent, utilized as systematic atributes, but are never completely controlled by the system's members.

(a) Territoriality — refers to the setting of the social system in space.

(b) Size — refers to the number of actors comprising a social system.

(c) Time — refers to the duration within which an action or process occurs.

c. The social action process is a conceptualization of stages of social action which encompass the major functions performed in action programs. Basic assumptions that support or undergird the model of social action include:

- * In most cases, there is a complex set of interrelated functions that are performed in the successful and efficient development and implementation of a social action program.
- * These functions can logically be integrated into a flow of action and processes from the beginning of an idea to final implementation, reorientation, or termination.
- * For the purpose of developing an action model and conducting field research, the flow can be separated into heuristic stages.
- * Models can be devised to observe, record, measure, and analyze the empirical reference implicit and explicit in the model.

(1) Stages in social action

(a) Analysis of the existing social systems — All social action takes place within the context of existing social systems. If the change agents (persons or groups) attempting to implement social action within some generally defined social system are to operate efficiently, it seems logical that they must have an understanding of the general social system within which the social action will take place, the important subsystems within the general social system, and the extrasystem influences upon the general social system and the subsystems. The system involved in the action will depend on the specific action program.

(b) Convergence of interest — Social action begins when a problem is recognized, articulated, and defined as a need by two or more people, and a decision is made to act. Usually the original convergence of interest on a problem involves only a few people. Often the convergence of interest is brought about when a person or persons from outside of the general social system converges interest with some person(s) within the general system. In the process of deciding to act there must be at least some tentative definition of the problem. selection of goals to be attained, and decision on means for action, even if only for "next step" actions.

(c) Analysis of the prior social situation — In any social system, certain leadership patterns, power relations, status roles, expectations, and beliefs and sentiments among people and groups probably have developed out of the past experience with similar problems, projects, or activities. Certain patterns of communication, cooperation, and conflict have probably emerged. Certain methods, appeals, and organizational structures worked; others failed. Thus, if planning groups understand the relevant elements of the prior situation they should provide a basis for sounder planning and action.

(d) Delineation of relevant social systems — Very few action programs involve directly all of the subsystems of the general system in which action takes place. Out of the knowledge of the general social system, the subsystems and extrasystems, the tentative definition of the problem, and the prior social situation it should be possible to delineate the social systems most relevant to the action program under consideration.

There are many bases upon which systems may become "relevant." A certain criterion to determine relevancy is whether groups are, or have in their membership, the people to be reached with the program — tne target system(s). A second criterion is the degree to which a group may represent the needs and interests of the people of the general social system or a particular subsystem that is the target system. A third criterion relates to the legitimation process. Although certain power structure groups may not be ultimate program target systems or help carry out actions, they may have the power of program legitimation. A fourth criterion of relevancy is related to the extent to which a group might possibly be involved in planning, sponsoring, or being central in communication channels related to the program or carrying out the program. Groups in the general social system might also be relevant if it is judged that the program being planned may conflict with those groups' points of view or impinge on their programs, members, and status. Groups both inside and outside the social system may become relevant if there is a possibility of involving them in a consulting capacity.

The tentative delineation of the relevant groups allows the planners to begin to narrow down the systems so that limited resources of time and personnel may be used more effectively. As social action progresses from one stage to another, certain systems may drop out of the "relevant" classification; others may have to be added.

(e) Initiation — At this stage there is limited initiation of action. A group or groups of people is involved to perform the consulting, legitimizing, and "sounding-board" functions. On the basis of the relevant groups and power influentials delineated in (d), "initiating sets" are chosen to contact those individuals and groups for their suggestions and approval. Thus, the initiating set is a group of persons (probably including the change agents previously involved) that is centrally interested in consulting with the key leaders of the relevant social systems. In this sense the initiating set is organized to perform these "sounding-board," consulting, and legitimating functions. The reasons why there may be need for a number of initiating sets composed of different combinations of people or totally different people will become more apparent in the discussion of the next stage.

(f) "Legitimation" with key power figures of social systems — Legitimation is used here mainly in the sense of giving approval (authority, justification, or "license to act") for action. It is recognized that final legitimation for any action program rests with the majority of the people in the relevant social system. It is also recognized that in most social systems there are certain key people who have the power of legitimation for most action programs or for specific kinds of action programs. There is usually a formal legitimation structure (e.g., elected officers in positions of authority in the relevant groups) and an informal legitimation structure (e.g., informal leaders in positions of influence who may be even more important than the formal legitimizers). Legitimation is especially important for action programs initiated by voluntary, nonlegal authority groups.

Legitimation at this stage of the planning process consists of consultation with the formal and informal leaders of the relevant social systems. The resource of access is important at this stage. The fact that different individuals will possess different access to individuals in the power structure may make it necessary to form several initiating sets. With reference to the comments made in the preceding paragraph, it is important to note that in most cases both formal and informal leaders should be contacted for their reactions and suggestions on the new program. Such an approach would tend to obtain the approval of the leaders to the program as well as suggestions for changes.

Legitimation is also important because it is at this point that many people are initially contacted with the basic ideas of the new program and with what the initiating group is trying to accomplish. Important expectations of and attitudes toward the initiating group are grounded in this contact.

(g) Diffusion — Thus far, the existence of the problem, the recognition of need, the motivation to act, and legitimation have involved only a small group of people. However, if other individuals and relevant systems are to act, they must be given the opportunity to determine, or be "convinced" of the existence of the problem, believe a need exists, and be willing to act. At this stage there is a need for people who can provide the kinds of resources needed (time, communications skills, organizational skills, access to many people or groups, etc.) to plan activities that will give opportunities for the relevant social systems to express felt needs in relation to the problem.

There appear to be two different aspects of this stage. First, the planning group must make major decisions relative to the program before moving to the next stage. Such decisions may take into consideration the suggestions and reactions of the consultants and legitimizers in the preceding stage.

A second aspect of this stage is preparation to diffuse the basic ideas of the program to the target group(s). This aspect is related to the point mentioned directly above, because content and plans to diffuse the ideas of the new program should be based on these major decisions. At this point, persons are involved who can best conceptualize and diffuse the essential ideas of the new program to the relevant target systems. The people who perform this function are called the Diffusion Sets. It is obvious that there may be a need for many different combinations of people, or completely different diffusion sets, as well as different methods and means as the process is carried out with various relevant target groups.

(h) Definition of need by the more general relevant social systems — At this stage, the activities planned by the diffusion sets are carried out to educate or convince the relevant social systems that a problem exists and that there is need for their action — it becomes "the people's problem." It is at this stage that the activities of the diffusion set usually attempt to accomplish broad involvement of relevant individuals, groups, and publics. This process can be as simple as providing a social situation in which existing individually felt needs are channeled into a general consensus. However, in most cases this stage involves a detailed and lengthy activity before the degree and amount of felt need are developed which will lead to action. The diffusion sets may use techniques such as basic education, surveys, capitalizing on or creating crisis situations, channeling complaints into actions, demonstrations, building on past programs, etc.

(i) Decision by the target system to act — The inclusion of this stage may be questioned, for in a real sense the decision to act may be implicit in the decision that a problem exists and that there is a high-priority need for its solution. However, this stage was included to emphasize the importance of getting not only tacit agreement that the problem exists and there is need for solution, but also a commitment from the people to act in relation to the problem. Commitment to action can be a basically covert phenomenon which may be found in the individual in the form of "psychological commitment," interest, feeling of need, and willingness to act relative to the problem.

Often the attempt is made in action programs to secure overt commitment such as a pledge of money or commitment to perform specific functions. This may be based on the action occurring when the commitment is made overtly before other persons.

(j) Formulation of goals — After the target system(s) members agree that there is a need for a solution to their problem and are "committed" to action in relation to it, group objectives or goals must be set up and formalized by the more general target system or groups to whom this authority is delegated. This is not to imply that the action program thus far has not had stated or at least implied goals and objectives. Recognizing that man is a telic being sets the condition that man always acts in terms of means and ends. However, it would appear that if future activities are going to be effectively carried out, the more general relevant systems are going to have to go through the process of developing specific goals and objectives or, in some cases, accept the goals and objectives suggested to them. The setting of goals by the more general relevant social systems may be accomplished in many different ways. The ends may have been explicitly stated as a part of the definition of need and commitment to act stages. In that case, a restatement of the ends may be all that is needed. In some cases the ends may have been implicitly stated in the previous stages and at this stage they are made explicit. In other cases, the more general target systems, or a representative group (formally or informally appointed) are given the responsibility of formalizing an acceptable set of objectives. Regardless of the method used, there must be some indication of consensus on and commitment to goals.

The setting of goals includes the proper statement of goals and objectives at the general and specific level in terms of short-term, intermediate, and long-term goals. Planning groups often skip the setting up of general and specific program goals. They move from a general definition of the need to the various means and methods involved in specific actions.

(k) Decision on means to be used — Once goals are set, there is the stage of exploring alternative means or methods and their consequences that might be used to reach those goals. Then from the range of means available, a decision has to be made on which ones will be used to attain the goals. As in the case of the stage of goal setting, there are many alternative methods that may be used to accomplish this stage.

In some action programs the stages from general definition of the need through goals to decisions on means are loosely combined. One way of getting people consciously to define a situation as a problem and to be motivated for action is to suggest a solution or solutions, including goals and means, to the problem — in many instances people tend to "ignore" or repress to the subconscious level problems for which they see no solutions.

(1) Development of plan of work — Within the framework of decided-upon goals and general means, a more specific series of actions is planned formally or informally. Decisions on organizational structure. designation of responsibilities, training, timing, planning of specific activities, etc., are all part of this stage. A formally stated plan of work usually includes the following elements.

*Goals to be accomplished — these usually correspond to the group's short-term, intermediate, and long-term objectives stated in a logically related fashion.

*Means to be used — such a statement usually includes a statement of the general means to be used and, in addition, a more detailed description of specific methods and actions to be taken.

* The organizational structure and the persons and groups responsible for actions to be taken.

* Training required to enable those responsible to accomplish the actions to which they are assigned.

* Additional specification of the sequence.

An important part of the plan of work is the statement of the organizational structure. Such a statement should include role descriptions, the lines of authority, and the authority and responsibility of each person or group.

(m) Mobilization of resources — Within the framework of the plan of work, attention must be given to obtaining and organizing the resources to carry out the program. The fact that this stage calls not only for mobilizing but for organizing should be emphasized. It is recognized that for a program to reach this point, there already has been a great deal of mobilization and organization of resources. However, this stage refers specifically to the mobilization and organization of the resources for the carrying out of the plan of work. The plan of work usually calls for the mobilization of many different kinds of resources — human, physical facilities, financial, communications, etc.

(n) Action — When the construct is used in a monophasic framework, these stages involve the carrying out of the action stages as developed in the plan of work. When the construct of social action is applied in a multiphasic sense, most of the action stages correspond to the specific stages of the next "flow" of the construct oriented at a new target system. However, in the multiphasic use of the construct, the action stages do not always correspond to the next flow of the construct. Therefore, certain phases of action may continue on through action steps, while other actions will involve another target system and social action phase starting with another "convergence of interest."

(o) Evaluation — Periodic evaluations should provide some assessment of each stage in the process, indicating how adequately the planning group performed each respective stage. Such evaluations should provide an opportunity to plan adjustments for inadequate treatment of past stages as well as suggest "next stage" actions.

After a group has completed its main functions in the planning and execution process, final evaluation can provide valuable insight into the operations and achievements of the group. Such an evaluation usually gives attention to whether stated goals were satisfactorily attained and the satisfaction with goals which were accomplished. Likewise, consideration is often given to the adequacy of the means used to achieve the group's goals as well as to the adequacy of the organizational structure and group processes involved in carrying out the program. In the multiphasic use of the construct, "final evaluation" may be applied after the final completion of the total program or at the end of each complete sequence "flow" of the construct stage.

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LESSON 5

MAKING IT IN THE ACADEMIC WORLD

OBJECTIVES

1. To be able to identify the implications and issues of the major legislation which affects women in academia.
2. To develop a strategy for achieving professional goals in higher education.
3. To be able to project the impact that the women's movement will have on higher education.

NARRATIVE

In order to ensure that equal opportunities are extended to women, federal legislation and regulations have been enacted. Since most higher educational institutions are considered federal contractors, many of the equal opportunity laws directly affect the employment practices of the institutions. This lesson will cover the policies that apply to higher education. Also, some survival strategies, training programs, and current research relating to professional women will be presented.

In the last several decades, the federal government has initiated major campaigns to provide equal employment opportunities for women. As a federal contractor and employer, an educational institution is legally obligated to comply with programs in employment practice areas (Federal Regulations, 1974). Several federal laws and regulations address sex discrimination in educational institutions. Executive Order 11246, as amended by Executive Order 11375, prohibits discrimination in employment and requires affirmative action by federal contractors. It prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex or national origin, and covers all employees within a given educational institution. The executive order is enforced by the Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC) of the Department of Labor, which has overall responsibility for the administration of the order. However, in October 1978, enforcement returned to the Department of Labor. The OFCC has designated the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) as the compliance agency responsible for enforcing the executive order for all contracts with educational institutions. Within HEW, the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) conducts the review and investigations (Hansen and Pondrom, 1974).

All educational institutions with one or more federal contracts and 50 or more employees are required to maintain a written affirmative action plan, including numerical or percentage goals and timetables. Affirmative action is a legal doctrine which provides a university with federal guidelines in developing procedures to ensure equitable faculty/staff treatment in areas of employment and promotion (Shulman, 1975). According to Hansen and Pondrom (1974), the efforts of higher educational institutions to establish equal employment programs and the governmental agencies' compliance review procedures have focused more on the compilation of extensive records concerning the work force than on practical development of programs to assure equality of opportunity.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended, is the major federal statute designed to provide all persons equal opportunity for meaningful employment, regardless of race, religion, color, sex or national origin. This law represents the federal effort to eliminate past patterns of discrimination and to ensure that all future employment programs will

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*Write to the Department of Labor, Office of Federal Contract Compliance, Washington, D.C. for more information.

allow free and open access to employment for all qualified applicants. Title VII is administered by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and covers all institutions with 15 or more full-time employees (Sape, 1974).

Under the Equal Pay Act of 1963, sex discrimination in wages for workers performing essentially the same job is prohibited. The Education Amendment of 1972 extends the Equal Pay Act to salaried employees, including executives, administrators, and professionals (Shulman, 1975). The act states that women and men performing work in the same establishment under similar conditions must receive the same pay if their jobs require equal skill, effort, and responsibility (Tinsley, 1975). The Act applies to all educational institutions and is enforced by the Wage and Hour Division of the US Department of Labor (National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1974).

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, as amended, prohibits sex discrimination against students and employees in all federally assisted education programs or activities. The employment coverage includes all employees, full time and part time, in all educational institutions except military and religious schools, to the extent that compliance would include their religious tenets (National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 1974).

Title IX states:

> No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal assistance. . .(Federal Register, 1975)

Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in all aspects of employment. Specifically, it applies to advertising and recruitment, job application processes, job criteria, hiring and firing, salary, work assignment, tenure, seniority, promotion, leave, fringe benefits and any other term, condition or privilege of employment. Certain employment practices that differentiate on the basis of sex are prohibited, such as those related to present or potential marital status and parental or familial status of job applicants and/or employees. Title IX regulations address eight categories which apply directly to students: admissions, housing and facilities, courses and other educational activities, counseling, financial aid, health and insurance benefits, marital or parental status, and athletics. Title IX requires the institution to adopt and publish grievance procedures to resolve employee complaints alleging action prohibited by Title IX (National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1974). The Department of HEW, Office of Civil Rights, is responsible for administering the law (Shulman, 1975).

Title VII (Section 799A) and Title VIII (Section 845) of the Public Health Service Act, as amended by the Comprehensive Health Manpower Act and the Nurse Training Amendments Act of 1971, state that the Secretary of HEW may not make federal monies available under either Title VII or VIII unless the applications for such monies contain an assurance that the grantee will not discriminate on the basis of sex. These regulations cover programs for schools of medicine, osteopathy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, optometry, pediatrics, allied health professions, and nursing schools. The reviews and regulations are enforced by HEW's Office of Civil Rights (Tinsley, 1975).

The federal laws and regulations have given credence to the fight to end discrimination, but they have not been a panacea for solving women's problems in academia. Silvestri and Kane (1975) and Alstyne, Withers, and Elliott (1977) illustrated that affirmative action is not working as it should. Alstyne et al. (1977) stated that after years of verbal commitment to affirmative action, few women and minorities hold top jobs in higher education administration. There is reluctant institutional commitment to locate and recruit minority candidates for administrative positions (Silvestri & Kane, 1975). As far as establishing guidelines for Title IX, Fields (1977) found that most colleges are not meeting the required deadlines and that no one is collecting data on what colleges have done or expect to do to comply with the law.

The results have not been favorable for those women who have taken charges of discrimination to court. Abramson (1975) described the long uphill battle involved in her discrimination cases in The Invisible Woman. Fields (1977) also reported that recent court decisions have rejected female faculty members' charges of discrimination. Because court battles are costly and time consuming, the Committee on the Status of Women of the American Association of University Professors recommended class-action rather than individual law suits ("Report of Committee W, 1976-77," 1977). Travis (1976) claimed that the lack of existing laws and inconsistent, uncoordinated compliance procedures among the various agencies have made the problem more complicated.

Although the laws and regulations governing discrimination are steps in the right direction, the literature cited above suggests that these laws and regulations have not yet achieved their intended purpose. Declining enrollments, recession, inflation, and financial stringency have reduced the total demand for teachers. Retrenchment in education adversely affects the status of women and minorities, who are usually the last to be hired and the first to be terminated. Women and minorities also hold fewer tenured positions and are not protected under tenure clauses. Efforts to pursue affirmative action through collective bargaining are also perceived to be in conflict with seniority principles. The negative effects of retrenchment and unsuccessful affirmative action efforts must be dealt with in the future. Suggested solutions to these problems include: work sharing, hiring freezes, early retirement, affirmative retention, and active recruitment of women and other minority groups (Retrenchment in Education, 1977).

Provisions for equal opportunity will eventually be implemented, either voluntarily or mandatorily. Hennig and Jardim (1977) maintained that imposed approaches to equal opportunity will by their very nature cause conflict, while voluntary compliance will allow organizations to generate responses from strengths within the organization's structure. The effectiveness with which equal employment opportunities are implemented will determine how many women are hired and how quickly women move up the career ladder. Hennig and Jardim asserted that women must be given access to the same opportunities as men if they are to compete successfully. They also suggested that affirmative action policies be converted into goals which specify how and when women will be able to prepare themselves to move up. Managers must be held responsible for the implementation, and reward or punishment must follow success or failure in achieving objectives.

Hennig and Jardim (1977) also offered suggestions for women desiring to improve their status. They suggested that women decide exactly what their career objectives are, assess their current situation and identify what it would take to reach their desired status. Women should know what skills are deemed necessary to perform the functions in the desired position and how to use the help of others in achieving their goals. These authors believe that women should also establish informal network systems to serve as critical guidance sources and support for themselves. Female mentors are also considered necessary by Gordon and Ball (1977), who called for survival dynamics to equip women with the strategies as well as the skills for moving into the administrative mainstream.

An understanding of power is perceived as being important for women by Gordon and Ball (1977), Kanter (1977), and Salzncik and Pfeffer (1977). Power is defined as the ability to get and use whatever is needed to achieve a person's work goals. In a larger hierarchical organization, power is deemed essential to successful completion of tasks (Kanter, 1977). In attempting to determine what resources contributed to departmental power in university settings, Salzncik and Pfeffer (1977) found the most critical resource to be contract and grant monies received by a department's faculty for research or consulting services. The goals of an organization usually reflect the values of those in positions of power. In order to improve their status in higher education, women must have an understanding of its power structure.

Political activism within professional organizations and special committees on individual campuses have been instituted to deal with the inequities facing academic women. Many professional organizations have caucuses whose primary focus is research concerning academic women. On individual campuses, grievance procedures and special committees such as Committees on the Status of Women have been established to handle discrimination complaints and make recommendations for improving the status of women (Rumbarger, 1973; Klotzburger, 1973).

As the plight of academic women is brought into clearer focus, more programs are being initiated to rectify their situation. One such program, the National Identification Program for the Advancement of Women in Higher Education Administration, inaugurated in 1977, was designed to identify and assist women in attaining major positions in academic administrations. This program is housed in the Office of Women in Higher Education, American Council on Education.

Another program, the Committee for the Concerns of Women in New England Colleges and Universities, is establishing a "New Girl" network to compete with, and eventually mesh with the longstanding "Old Boy" system. Concerns sets up a variety of programs for training women administrators in the technical skills they often lack. Concerns also focuses on "networking" principles, since most top jobs are handled behind the scenes. A Subgroup of Concerns, HERS (Higher Education Resource Services), was founded in 1972 with funding from the Ford Foundation. HERS has three distinct programs. One program is a referral placement service which includes a roster of women whose resumes have been collected in a talent bank; another activity is the program of career counseling workshops funded by the Carnegie Foundation; HERS also has a program consisting of a series of seminars to teach administrative skills. The seminars are funded for three years by FIPSE (Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education)(Stent, 1978).

Publications such as *Women in Fellowship and Training Programs* and *Trends in Education: Women in Educational Leadership* have been written to assist women in the academic world (Attwood, 1972; Silver, n.d.). Other necessary campus facilities such as child-care services will emerge as the concerns of women are heard (Furniss and Graham, 1974; Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973).

As further research is conducted and additional literature is published concerning academic women, institutions will be better able to effectively serve this group. Bart (1974) described Rossi's humanistic image of the future as one which focuses on institutional changes that could result in equality for men as well as women. In Rossi's model of equality, fellowship and creativity would be emphasized rather than rationality and efficiency, and social responsibility would have greater value than status and high income. This would mean that academic productivity would be redefined to emphasize quality of teaching, service to the institution and community, and colleagueship with students. Hennig and Jardim (1977) suggested that the inclusion of women into the work setting could improve the quality of work life. This could mean that an employee's family responsibilities would be brought more into balance with work demands. Thus, the work and rewards would be divided among more people. Harris (1974) described the lifestyles of professional black couples as being predicated upon higher education for both men and women. Many black professional couples have learned to share responsibility so that each may attain their highest professional capacity. Harris (1974) concluded that if education for men and women is to have any meaning in today's world, it must have the goal of providing real equality between its male and female students.

The purpose of this lesson is to review legislation and regulations which have been established to eliminate discrimination and to acquaint students with existing programs and survival strategies for improving the status of women in higher education.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the required bibliographical entries. Select the objectives and activities most congruent with the goals of your class and assign student readings accordingly.

Activity I: How Affirmative Are Existing Regulations and Laws? (Objective 1)

1. Order the fold-out poster "Federal Laws and Regulations Concerning Sex discrimination in Educational Institutions." Address: American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.
2. Invite affirmative action officers, members of the Committee on the Status of Women, and other campus personnel to speak to the class on legislation and regulations affecting academic women.

Related Readings:

Hanson, D. J. & Pondrom, C. N. Executive Order 11246, as amended. Federal regulations and the employment practices of colleges and universities. Washington, D. C.: National Association of College and University Business Officers, Federal Employment Regulations Service, 1974.

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Taylor, E. & Shavlik, D. Title IX of the education amendments of 1972 as amended. Federal regulations and the employment practices of colleges and universities. Washington, D. C.: National Association of College and University Business Officers, Federal Employment Regulations Service, 1974.

Tinsley, A. Academic women: Sex discrimination and the law. New York: MLA Commission on the Status of Women, Modern Language Association, 1975.

Activity II: Taking Action (Objective 2)

Duplicate copies of "Taking Action" (pp. 3/189-3/190) and "Professional Women's Groups" (pp. 3/191-3/198).

Related Readings

Gordon, R. S. & Ball, P. G. Survival dynamics for women in educational administration. *Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors*, 1977, *40*(2), 46-48.

Kanter, R. M. Power games in the corporation. *Psychology Today*, 1977, *11*, 48-53.

Klotzburger, K. Political action by academic women. In A. S. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), *Academic women on the move*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973.

Hennig, M. & Jardim, A. *The managerial woman*. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1977, 197-207.

Rumbarger, M. L. Internal remedies for sex discrimination in colleges and universities. In A. S. Rossi & A. Calderwood (Eds.), *Academic women on the move*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973

Taylor, E. & Shavlik, D. To advance women: A national identification program. *Educational Record*, 1977, *58*(1), 91-100.

Activity III: Looking Ahead (Objective 3)

Related Readings

Bart, P. B. Why women see the future differently from men. In A. Toffler (Ed.), *Learning for tomorrow*. New York: Random House, 1974.

Harris, P. R. Problems and solutions in achieving equality for women. In W. T. Furniss and P. A. Graham (Eds.), *Women in higher education*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974.

How men are changing. *Newsweek*, 1978, *91*(3), 52-61.

Activity IV: Survival Strategies (Objective 2)

Duplicate copies of "Twenty Survival Strategies You Can Start Immediately" (pp. 3/199-3/200).

Related Readings

Review readings listed in Activity II.

Activity V: Female Role Models

Duplicate copies of "Role Model Life Line" (p. 3/201).

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: How Affirmative Are Existing Regulations and Laws? Objective 1)

The purpose of this activity is to familiarize the student with the federal laws and regulations affecting women, and to acquaint the students with some of the implications and controversies surrounding the laws and regulations.

1. Display the poster "Federal Laws and Regulations Concerning Sex Discrimination in Educational Institutions."
2. Have the students review their institution's affirmative action plan and invite affirmative action officers and members from the Committee on the Status of Women to speak to the class on legislation and regulations affecting academic women.
3. Have the class generate hypothetical cases involving discrimination and determine what actions to pursue. Follow the grievance positions established at your institution.
4. Have classroom discussion on: (a) Is affirmative action working? (b) How will retrenchment affect women? (c) What are the implications of reverse discrimination? (d) What will be the implications of the Bakke decision?

Activity II: Taking Action (Objective 2)

The purpose of this activity is twofold. One purpose is to acquaint the student with professional women's groups. The second purpose is to encourage the student to assess her/his own status (as well as the institution's) and to develop an action plan to assist in achieving personal and institutional goals.

1. Distribute copies of "Taking Action" (pp. 3/189-3/190) and "Professional Women's Groups" (pp. 3/191-3/198) to class members.
2. Have the class members work on the personal portion of "Taking Action" individually.
3. Divide the class into small groups in order to complete the institutional segment of "Taking Action."
4. Have the students share in class their personal career objectives and means for attaining their goals.

5. Have the class respond to each individual's action plan in terms of feasibility, realistic expectations, and means for achieving goals.

6. Have the groups share institutional goals and ask the class to determine how they can best promote equality.

Activity III: Looking Ahead (Objective 3)

The purpose of this activity is to assist the student in recognizing the advantages that the women's movement will have for higher education and society in general.

1. Ask students to write a paper on how they think the women's movement will affect higher education. Include changes that will be initiated, the status of women's programs, how family life will change, etc.

2. Select the best-written essays and share the future projections with the class.

Activity IV: Survival Strategies (Objective 2)

The purpose of this activity is to acquaint the student with coping strategies to be used in educational settings.

1. Distribute copies of "Twenty Survival Strategies You Can Start Immediately" (pp. 3/199-3/200).

2. Divide the class into small groups and ask the students to generate additional lists.

3. Use these lists to generate discussion on survival strategies for women.

Activity V: Female Role Models

The purpose of this activity is to make the student aware of the importance of role models.

1. Distribute "Role Model Life Line" (p. 3/201) or draw one on the board for students to copy.

2. Ask students to take a few moments to think back on the people who have been significant in shaping their aspirations (vocational and career). Ask female students to consider women; males should also list women. Tell students to list them at the appropriate place on their role model life lines.

394

3. Follow the same procedure for significant male role models.

4. Ask participants what characteristics they noted in female role models they listed.

5. Ask male and female students to compare role model life lines. Ask if the patterns are similar or dissimilar, and in what ways.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Which federal regulations directly affect the employment of women in higher education?
2. List several strategies that would assist a woman in reaching her professional goals in higher education.
3. What impact will the women's movement have on higher education?

Handout for Activity II

TAKING ACTION

In order to improve the status of academic women, action must be taken by the woman herself and by the institution. The following exercise is designed to assist in both personal and institutional plans.

I. Personal Plan

A. What are you doing now?

B. What would you like to be doing five years from now? Ten years from now?

C. What are your present states of knowledge and competencies?

D. What levels of knowledge, skills, and competencies will be required for your objectives in five years? Ten years?

E. How can you acquire the necessary skills for your future objectives?

F. Exactly how do you plan on reaching your goal in five years? Ten Years?

G. What kinds of knowledge, skills, and competencies do people have who currently hold these positions? How did they acquire their jobs?

H. Identify those people who can help you achieve your goals and determine in what ways they can help.

I. Are there any professional organizations to which you should belong?

J. Are you projecting the kind of professional image that is required for the position you seek? If not, how can you improve your image?

II. Institutional Action

A. What kinds of programs and activities should be made available to improve the status of undergraduate women? Graduate women?

B. How can faculty of graduate courses improve colleague relationships with women?

C. What can be done about sexist curriculum materials?

D. How can women's organizations both on campus and throughout the nation improve the status of women?

E. How can power be more equally distributed?

F. What kinds of training programs should be made available to women?

G. How do you make men aware of the special problems of women?

H. What kinds of campus facilities are needed to facilitate the participation of women?

I. Please list other institutional actions that need to be initiated in order to insure equality for women.

Handout for Activity II

PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S GROUPS*

May 1978

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN
Marjorie Bell Chambers, Ph.D.,
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Helen B. Wolfe, Ed.D., General Director

Academy of Management**
2700 Bay Area Blvd.
Houston, TX 77058
President: Dr. Rosemary Pledger
Committee on the Status of Women
in the Management Profession
Chair: Dr. Laurie Larwood
Claremont Men's College
Claremont, CA 91711

Adult Education Association of
the USA
810 18th St., NW, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20006
202/676-7036
Exec. Dir.: Dr. Linda S. Hartsock
Commission on the Status of Women
Chair: Ms. Marcie Boucouvalas
Dept. of Adult Education
Florida State University
Talahassee, FL 32306
904/575-7101
Chair: Dr. Joy K. Rice
University of Wisconsin
Continuing Education Service
432 N. Murray St.
Madison, WI 53711
608/263-6960

American Academy of Religion**
Women's Caucus - Religious Studies
Chairs: Ms. Barbara H. Andolsen
Dept. of Religion
Douglass College
Rutgers University
New Brunswick, NJ 08903 212/666-1202
Ms. Lilian Bozak
Dept. of Religious Studies
Molloy College
Rockville Centre, NY 11570
516/678-5000

American Alliance for Health, Physical
Education and Recreation**
Task Force on Equal Opportunity &
Human Rights
1201 16th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/833-5533
Contact: Ms. Marjorie Blaufarb

American Anthropological Association**
1703 New Hampshire Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20009 202/232-8800
Exec. Dir.: Mr. Edward J. Lehman
Committee on the Status of Women in
Anthropology
Chair: Ms. Ernestine Friedl
Dept. of Anthropology
Duke University
Durham, NC 27706 919/684-6459

American Association for Higher
Education**
One Dupont Circle
Washington, DC 20036 202/293-6440
Women's Caucus
Coordinator: Ms. Otis Holloway Owens
IHERS-P.O. Box 6293
University, AL 35486
205/348-7770

American Association for the
Advancement of Science**
Office of Opportunities in Science
1776 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036
202/467-4496
Director: Dr. Janet W. Brown
Women's Caucus
Chair: Ms. Phyllis Kahn, Member,
Minnesota State Legislature
State Capital
St. Paul, MN 55155

American Association of Immunologists**
9650 Rockville Pike
Bethesda, MD 20014 301/530-7178
Women and Minority Group Immunologists
Chair: Dr. Gail Theis
Dept. of Pathology
New York Medical College
Valhalla, NY 10595

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*Used by permission of the American Association of University Women.

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

American Association of University
Professors**
Committee on the Status of Women
in the Academic Profession
Dr. Lesley Francis Zimic
One Dupont Circle, Suite 500
Washington, DC 22006 202/466-8050
Chair: Prof. Mary Gray
Dept. of Mathematics
American University
Washington, DC 20016

American Association of Women in
Community and Junior Colleges**
Chair: Dr. Mildred Bulpitt
Dean of Continuing Education
Phoenix College
Phoenix, AZ 85202 604/264-2492

American Association of Women in
Community and Junior Colleges (cont'd.)
Center for Women's Opportunities
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 410/AACJC
Washington, DC 20036 202/293-7050
Director: Ms. N. Carol Eliason

American Chemical Society**
Women Chemists Committee
Staff Liaison: Ms. Ann Donahue
1155 16th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/872-4437
Chair: Dr. Nina la Roscher
American University
Washington, DC 20016

American College Personnel Association**
(Division of APGA)
1607 New Hampshire Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20009 202/483-4633
Women's Task Force
Coordinator: Dr. Karen Kitchener
1419 Ash Drive
Fort Collins, CO 80521

American Economic Association**
Committee on the Status of Women in
Economic Professions
Chair: Dr. Ann F. Friedlaender
Dept. of Economics,
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Cambridge, MA 02139 617/253-3373

American Education Research Association**
1126 16th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/223-9485
Staff Liaison: Ms. Lynn Winston
Committee on Women in Educational
Research
Chair: Ms. Noele Krenkel
San Francisco State University
Department of Psychology
1600 Holloway
San Francisco, CA 94131

American Federation of Teachers**
11 Dupont Circle, NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/737-4400
Director: Ms. Barbara Van Blake
Human Rights and Community Relations Dept.
Women's Rights Committee
Chair: Ms. Patricia S. Halpin
1816 Chestnut St.
Philadelphia, PA 19103
215/567-1300

American Geological Institute**
5205 Leesburg Pike
Falls Church, VA 22041
703/379-2480
Exec. Dir.: Dr. Fred Honkala
Women Geoscientists Committee
Chair: Dr. Mary E. Hileman
Texaco, Inc.
P.O. Box 3109
Midland, TX 79701 915/682-0541

American Historical Association**
400 A Street, SE
Washington, DC 20003
202/544-2422
Asst. Exec. Dir.: Dr. Edmund
Worthy, Jr.
Committee on Women Historians
Chair: Ms. Joan W. Scott
Dept. of History
University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, NC 27514
919/933-2155

American Humanist Association**
603 Third St.
San Francisco, CA 94107
Women's Caucus
Chair: Ms. Gina Allen
2424 Castro St.
San Francisco, CA 94131

American Institute of Chemists**
7315 Wisconsin Ave.
Washington, DC 20014 301/652-2447
Exec. Dir.: Mr. David A. H. Roethel
Professional Opportunities for Women
Committee
Chair: Dr. Helene N. Guttman
National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute
Office of Program Planning and Evaluation
Bldg. 31/Rm. 5A33
Bethesda, MD 20014 301/496-7226

American Institute of Planners**
1776 Massachusetts Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/872-0611
Women's Rights (Joint Committee with
the American Society of Planning
Officials)**
Chair: Ms. Constance Lieder
1510 Park Ave.
Baltimore, MD 21217 301/523-4661

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

400

American Library Association**
Committee on Status of Women in Librarianship
Contact: Ms. Margaret Myers
50 E. Hurton St.
Chicago, IL 60611 312/944-6780
Social Responsibilities Round Table
Task Force on the Status of Women
Coordinator: Ms. Diane G. Kadanoff
25 Grotto Ave.
Providence, RI 02906 401/274-9567

American Medical Women's Association, Inc.**
1740 Broadway
New York, NY 10019 212/586-8683
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Lorraine Loesel
President: Charlotte H. Kerr, M.D.

American Meteorological Society**
Board on Women and Minorities
Chair: Dr. Jay Fein
Office of Climate Dynamics
National Science Foundation
Washington, DC 20550 202/635-1538

American Nurses Association**
2420 Pershing Rd.
Kansas City, MO 64108
816/474-5720
Exec. Dir.: Dr. Myrtle Aydelotte
President: Ms. Anne Zimmerman
Legislative Office
1030 15th St., NW
Washington, DC 20005
202/296-8010

American Personnel and Guidance Association**
1607 New Hampshire Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20009
202/483-4633
Assoc. Exec.: Dr. Julia P. Davidson
Women's Committee
Chair: Dr. Josephine B. Hayslip
Educational Consultant
Career and Vocational Guidance
State Dept. of Education
64 N. Main St.
Concord, NH 03301

American Philosophical Association
Exec. Sec.: Mr. John O'Connor
University of Delaware
Neward, DE 19711
Committee on the Status of Women
Chair: Ms. Marilyn Frye
Dept. of Philosophy
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
517/353-3981

American Physical Society**
335 E. 45th St.
New York, NY 10017
Committee on the Status of Women in Physics
Chair: Dr. Caroline L. Herzenberg
Argonne National Laboratory
Argonne, IL 60439 312/972-6123

American Physiological Society
9650 Rockville Pike
Bethesda, MD 20014 301/530-7164
Liaison: Ms. Mary Dettbrenner
301/530-7172
Task Force on Women in Physiology
Chair: Dr. Elizabeth Tidhall
Dept. of Physiology
George Washington University
Washington, DC 20037 202/676-3559

American Political Science Association**
1527 New Hampshire Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/483-2512
Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession
Chair: Dr. Mary L. Shanley
Dept. of Political Science
Vassar College
Poughkeepsie, NY 12601
914/452-7000 X2200

American Psychiatric Association**
1700 18th St., NW
Washington, DC 20009 202/232-7878
Contact: Jeanne Spurlock, M.D.
Deputy Medical Director
Committee on Women
Chair: Elaine Hilberman, M.D.
Dept. of Psychiatry
University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, NC 27514 919/966-2127

American Psychological Association**
1200 17th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/833-7600
Committee on Women in Psychology
Staff Liaison: Dr. Nancy Felipe Russo
202/833-4908
Chair: Dr. Loraine Eyde 202/632-6037

American Public Health Association, Inc.
1015 18th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/467-5095
Staff Liaison: Ms. Shirlene V. Showell
Standing Committee of Women's Rights
Chair: Ms. Deborah Ann Lewis
907 6th St., SW, Apt. 607
Washington, DC 20024 202/245-6233
Women's Caucus
Chair: Ms. Allyson Schwartz, Elizabeth Blackwell
Health Center for Women
112 S. 16th St.
Philadelphia, PA 19103

American Society for Cell Biology**
Women in Cell Biology
Contact: Dr. Susan Goldhor
NS/Hampshire College
Amherst, MA 01002 413/256-0409

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

American Society for Microbiology**
1913 I St., NW
Washington, DC 20006
202/833-9680
Committee on the Status of Women
Microbiologists
Chair: Dr. Jessie Price
1906 Lewon Drive
Madison, WI 53711 608/274-3286

American Society for Public Administration**
1225 Connecticut Ave., NW Suite 300
Washington, DC 20036
202/785-3255
Staff Liaison: Mr. Levi A. Dawson
Committee on Women in Public
Administration
Chair: Ms. Genevieve C. Sims
U.S. Civil Service Commission
Office of the Commissioner
1900 E St., NW, Rm. 5315
Washington, DA 20415
202/632-6103

American Society for Training and Development**
One Dupont Circle, Suite 400
Washington, DC 20036
202/659-9588
Women's Caucus
Chair: Ms. Julie O'Mara
Response and Associates
5979 Greenridge Rd., Suite 100
Castro Valley, CA 94546
415/582-7744

American Society of Biological Chemists**
9650 Rockville Pike
Bethesda, MD 20014 301/530-7145
Committee on Equal Opportunities
for Women
Chair: Dr. Ann E. Kaplan
National Institute of Health
Bg. 37-3B27
Bethesda, MD 20014 301/496-5688

American Society of Planning Officials
1313 E. 60th St.
Chicago, IL 60637 312/947-2560
Women's Rights Committee (See
American Institute of Planners)

American Sociological Association**
1722 N St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/833-3411
Exec. Assoc.: Dr. Doris Wilkinson
Committee on the Status of Women in
Sociology
Chair: Ms. Joan G. Stelling
School of Nursing
McGill University
3506 University St.
Montreal, Quebec, Canada H3A 2A7

American Speech and Hearing Association**
10801 Rockville Pike
Rockville, MD 20852
Contact: Dr. Irma K. Jeter
Dir. of Urban and Ethnic Program
Committee on the Equality of the Sexes
Chair: Dr. Judy K. Underwood
1716 S. County Rd., #29
Loveland, CO 80537

American Statistical Association
806 15th St., NW
Washington, DC 20005 202/393-3253
Exec. Dir.: Dr. Fred C. Leone
Women's Caucus
Chair: Ms. Janet L. Norwood
Deputy Commissioner
Bureau of Labor Statistics
414 G St., NW
Washington, DC 20212 202/523-1092
Committee on Women in Statistics
Chair: Dr. Richard C. Taeuber
Office of Technical Support & Statistics, OASPE-HEW
Washington, DC 20201 202/245-7515

American Studies Association**
4025 Chestnut St., T7
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, PA 19104
215/243-5808
Exec. Sec.: Dr. Roberta K. Gladowski
Women's Committee
Coordinator: Dr. Joanna Schneider
Zangrando
American Studies Program
Skidmore College
Saratoga Springs, NY 12866
518/585-5000 X278

American Women in Radio and Television, Inc.**
1321 Connecticut Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20016
202/296-0009
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Francine P. Proulx
Affirmative Action Committee
Chair: Ms. Jean Anwyll
Polaroid Corporation
549 Technology Square
Cambridge, MA 02138
617/864-6000

Association for Asian Studies**
One Lane Hall
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 48109
303/665-2490
Adm. Officer: Ms. Carol J. Johnson
Committee on the Role of Women in
Asian Studies

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

Association for Women in Mathematics
President: Dr. Lenore Blum
Dept. of Mathematics
Mills College
Oakland, CA 94613

Association for Women in Psychology
Contact: Ms. Cindy Villis
Dept. of Psychology
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, IL 62901

Association for Women in Science**
1346 Connecticut Ave., NW, #1122
Washington, DC 20036 202/833-1998
President: Dr. Judith Ramaley

Association of American Geographers**
1710 16th St., NW
Washington, DC 20006
202/234-1450
Exec. Dir.: Dr. J. Nystrom
Committee on the Status of Women in Geography
Chair: Dean Phyllis Thompson
Thomas Jefferson College
Grand Valley State College
Allendale, MI 49401 616/895-6611 X164

Association of American Law Schools**
One Dupont Circle, NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/296-8851
Section of Women in Legal Education
Chair: Prof. Nancy S. Erickson
N.Y. Law School
57 Worth St.
New York, NY 10013 212/966-3500

Association of American Women Dentists**
435 N. Michigan Ave., 17th Fl.
Chicago, IL 60611 312/644-0828
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Hattie Banbury

B'nai B'rith Women
1640 Rhode Island Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/857-6600
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Edna J. Wolf
President: Ms. Evelyn Wasserstrom

Church Employed Women
475 Riverside Dr., Rm. 1260
New York, NY 10027 212/870-2101
Chair: Ms. Betty Olley
First Presbyterian Church
Monticellus, NY 13108

College Art Association of America**
Committee on the Status of Women in the Profession
16 E. 52 St.
New York, NY 10022 212/755-3532
Exec. Sec.: Ms. Rose R. Weil
Chair: Prof. Sheila McNally
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN 55455 612/373-2872

College Music Society**
Dept. of Music
University of New York
Binghamton, NY 13901
Exec. Sec.: Mr. Craig Short
Committee on the Status of Women
Chair: Prof. Adrienne Fried Block
College of Staten Island
130 Stuyvesant Place
Staten Island, NY 10301
212/720-3130

The Coordinating Committee on Women in the Historical Profession--Conference Group on Women's History**
Exec. Sec.: Ms. Jordy Bell
6 N. Highland Pl.
Croton-on-Hudson, NY 10520
914/271-4868
Chairs: Ms. Joan Hoff Wilson (CCWHP)
Dept. of History
Arizona State University
Tempe, AZ 85281;
Ms. Hilda Smith (CCWHP)
Dept. of History
University of Maryland
College Park, MD 20742

Federally Employed Women**
National Press Bldg., #485
Washington, DC 20045
202/638-4404
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Daisy B. Fields

Federation of Organizations for Professional Women
2000 P St., NW, #403
Washington, DC 20036
202/466-3544
Exec. Dir.: Donna Devall
President: Dr. Marie M. Cassidy
2300 I St., NW, Ross Hall
Washington, DC 20037 202/676-3552

Feminist Law Students Association**
University of Santa Clara School of Law
Santa Clara, CA 95053
Contact: Ms. Dee Goodman
1492 W. Hedding
San Jose, CA 95126 408/247-7913

Latin American Studies Association**
President: Prof. Riordan Roett
SAIS-Johns Hopkins University
1740 Massachusetts Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20036
Chair: Prof. Jane Jaquette
624 23rd St.
Santa Monica, CA 90402

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Linguistic Society of America
1161 N. Kent St.
Arlington, VA 22209 703/528-2314
Committee on the Status of Women
in Linguistics
Chair: Dr. Ellen F. Prince
Dept. of Linguistics
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, PA 19174

Modern Language Association**
62 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10011
Committee on the Status of Women
in the Profession
Staff Liaison: Ms. Cheryl Hurley
Co-Chairs: Ms. Barbara Smith and
Ms. Donna C. Stanton

National Association for Female Executives**
32 E. 39th St.
New York, NY 10016 212/988-3726
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Wendy Rue

National Association for Women Deans,
Administrators, and Counselors**
1028 Connecticut Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/659-9330
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Joan M. McCall

National Association of Bank Women**
111 E. Wacker Dr.
Chicago, IL 60601 312/644-6610
Exec. Manager: Ms. Sharon Pierce

National Association of Media Women**
157 W. 126 St.
New York, NY 10027 212/666-1320
or 666-9474
President: Ms. Xernona Clayton Brady

National Association of Social Workers**
1425 H St., NW
Washington, DC 20005 202/628-6800
Staff Associate: Ms. Sandra Match
National Committee on Women's Issues
Chair: Ms. Betty Johson
1901 Prospect Ave., Apt. 704
Milwaukee, WI 53202 414/289-0550

National Association of Women Lawyers**
American Bar Center
1155 E. 60 St.
Chicago, IL 60637
Exec. Sec.: Ms. Alfreda Rockwood
President: Ms. Miriam G. Newman
225 W. 34th St.
New York, NY 10001
212/736-2113

The National Chamber of Commerce for
Women, Inc.**
1623 Connecticut Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20009
202/332-7850
Board Member: Ms. Connie Arnold
"Household Risk Management, Jobs,
and Business Service for Women"
Action Committee
Chair: Ms. Elizabeth McCorkle

National Council for the Social
Studies**
1515 Wilson Blvd.
Arlington, VA 22209
Advisory Committee on Sexism and
Social Justice
Chair: Ms. Loretta Carney
14 Circle Lane
Albany, NY 12203 518/474-1548

National Council of Administrative
Women in Education**
1815 Ft. Myer Dr. N.
Arlington, VA 22209
703/528-6111
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Josephine P. Coiner
Committee on the Status of Women
Chair: Ms. Barbara Sizemore

National Council of Teachers of
English
1111 Kenyon Rd.
Urbana, IL 61801 217/328-3870
Women's Committee
Chair: Ms. Lallie Coy
Triton College
2000 Fifth Ave.
River Grove, IL 60171

National Council on Family Relations**
Task Force on Women's Rights and
Responsibilities
Chair: Dr. Rose M. Somerville
Dept. of Sociology
San Diego State University
San Diego, CA 92182

National Dental Association**
734 15th St., NW, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20005
Exec. Dir.: Mr. Ford T. Johnson, Jr.
Auxiliary
President: Ms. Myrtle L. Moore
4546 Circle View Blvd.
Los Angeles, CA 90043

National Education Association
1201 16th St., NW
Washington, DC 20036 202/833-4000
President: Mr. John Ryor
Women's Caucus
Contact: Ms. Janetta Richardson

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

National University Extension Association**
One Dupont Circle, Suite 360
Washington, DC 20036 202/659-3130
Exec. Dir.: Dr. Lloyd H. Davis
Division of Women's Education
Chair: Ms. Charlotte Tatro
Director, Institute for Women
Florida International University
Tamiami Trail
Miami, FL 33144
Concerns of Women Committee
Chair: Ms. Peggy Houston
Extension Program Specialist
University of Iowa
C-108 E. Hall
Iowa City, IA 52240

Nuclear Energy Women**
Director: Ms. Angelina S. Howard
Energy Information
Duke Power Co.
P.O. Box 2178
Charlotte, NC 28242 704/373-8138

Organization of American Historians**
112 N. Bryan St.
Bloomington, IN 47401
Exec. Sec.: Mr. Richard Kirkendau
Committee on the Status of Women
in the Profession
Chair: Ms. D'Ann Campbell
Newberry Library
60 W. Walton
Chicago, IL 60610 313/861-0618

Population Association of America**
P.O. Box 14182, Benjamin Franklin
Station
Washington, DC 20044
202/393-3253
Women's Caucus
Chair: Ms. Katherine Darabi
Center for Population and
Family Health

Public Relations Society of America
845 Third Ave
New Uork, NY 10022 212/826-1761
Contact: Ms. Rea W. Smith

Society for Women in Philosophy
Chair: Dr. Maryellen Macguigan
2020 Willistead Crescent
Windsor, Ontario, Canada N86 1K5

Society of American Archivists**
P.O. Box 8198, UICC Library
Chicago, IL 60680
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Ann Morgan Campbell
Committee on the Status of Women
in the Archival Profession
Chair: Ms. Eleanor McKay
Memphis State University
Bristol Library Special Collections Dept.
Memphis, TN 38152 901/454-2210

Society of Women Engineers**
United Engineering Center, Rm. 305
345 E. 47nd St.
New York, NY 10017
Exec. Sec.: Ms. Inez Van Vranken
212/644-7855
President: Ms. Arminta J. Harness
1928 Forest Ave.
Richland, WA 99352

Sociologists for Women in Society**
President: Prof. Nona Glazer
Sociology POB 751
Portland State University
Portland, OR 97207 503/229-3926

Speech Communication Association
5202 Leesburg Pike
Falls Church, VA 22041 703/379-1888
Assoc. Exec. Sec.: Dr. Barbara Lieb-Brilhart
Women's Caucus
Chairs: Dr. Barbara Eakins
6800 E. National Rd.
S. Charleston, OH 45368
513/324-4926;
Dr. Fran Hassencahl
Speech Dept.
Old Dominion University
Norfolk, VA 23508

United Presbyterian Church in the USA
Council on Women and the Church
Associate: Dr. Elizabeth H. Verdesi
Rm. 1149, 475 Riverside Dr.
New York, NY 10027 212/870-2019
Chair: Rev. Elizabeth Massie
2687 42nd Ave.
San Francisco, CA 94116
415/664-5335

Women Educators**
Coordinator: Dr. Patricia B. Campbell
P.O. Box 218
Red Bank, NJ 07701
201/542-2448

Women in Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Planning**
Contact: Ms. Jackie Masloff
c/o Boston Architectural Center
320 Newbury St.
Boston, MA 02115 617/734-9135

Women in Communications, Inc.**
Exec. Dir.: Ms. Mary E. Utting
P.O. Box 9561
Austin, TX 78766 512/345-8922

Women in Science and Engineering**
Contact: Dr. Miriam Schweber
22 Turning Mill Rd.
Lexington, MA 02173
617/862-9251

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

Women's Caucus for Art**
President: Ms. Lee Ann Miller
Dept. of Art and Art History
University of Missouri-Kansas City
Kansas City, MO 64110
Affirmative Action Committee
Chair: Ms. Mary Fifield
2336 Cherry Hill Dr., Apt. B-6
Springfield, IL 62704

Women's Caucus for Political Science**
President: Dr. Susan J. Tolchin
Mt. Vernon College
2100 Foxhall Rd.
Washington, DC 20007
202/331-3418

Women's Caucus for the Modern Languages
Chair: Ms. Helen Batchelor
Special Assistant to the Chancellor
University of Wisconsin
Milwaukee, WI 53201
414/963-5923

Women's Classical Caucus**
Chair: Prof. Sarah B. Pomeroy
Hunter College
Box 126A, 695 Park Ave.
New York, NY 10021
212/570-5217

Women's Veterinary Medical Association
President: Dr. Donna den Boer
29500 Heathercliff Rd.
Malibu, CA 90265

Women Working in Construction**
Contact: Ms. E. Howard
1854 Wyoming Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20009
202/638-4868 or 820-2982

**These groups offer one or more of these services regarding employment opportunities: a roster of women for employers seeking female applicants, listings of job openings in their newsletters, financial aid, and career information.

Handout for Activity IV

TWENTY SURVIVAL STRATEGIES YOU CAN START IMMEDIATELY*

1. Find out who is responsible for Affirmative Action, EEO, and Title IX on your campus. Invite them to lunch or a seminar with other campus women.
2. Enroll in an assertiveness training group or organize one with other administrative and faculty women. Encourage female students and co-workers to participate in assertiveness training and consciousness raising.
3. Keep yourself posted on professional vacancies on your campus; share this information with other women in your institution as well as at other schools.
4. Give your dean or department head a list of the names and addresses of the women's caucuses within your professional associations. Then follow up when vacancies arise to see that he or she uses it.
5. Join professional organizations and actively participate (hold offices, serve on committees, write articles, develop workshops, attend meetings, volunteer!).
6. Join professional organizations whose primary membership is women in administrative roles (such as the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors or the National Council of Administrative Women in Education).
7. Establish ties with community women's organizations (like NOW, AAUW, the League of Women Voters, BPW, and women's centers).
8. Involve yourself in your campus Commission for Women (you need not be a member to attend open meetings, request minutes, express an interest, or respond to an issue).
9. Go to your chancellor, provost or president and express your desire to serve on university committees and/or special projects.
10. Establish a women's caucus on your campus. Intra-institutional communication is important, but also spend time analyzing the power structure and decision-making practices at your university.
11. Find out who new female staff members are each fall and invite them to a women's caucus gathering.
12. Give credit where credit is due, and give support to women in your institution who are challenging the system (headway they make will be your gain also).
13. Blow your own horn to your supervisors--let them know the worthwhile things you are doing and the positive image you are projecting for your division.
14. Support male colleagues who are attempting to promote opportunities for women.

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*Gordon, R. S. & Ball, F. G. Survival dynamics for women in educational administration. Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 1977, 40(2), 46-48. Used by permission.

15. Analyze your own working practices with clerical staff to ensure that you are not practicing those things you find dehumanizing in the main administrative structure.

16. Work with the College of Education to provide beneficial practicum experiences for graduate women. (Share strategies as well as experiences, and failures as well as successes.) Be open to learn from your students.

17. Share the power--delegate responsibility and involve people in the decision-making process; keep them informed of all the information that is needed to make a decision.

18. Find out when budget planning begins and ask to be included. Attend open hearings on the budget.

19. Be aware of your usage of the generic "he" and begin to change both your writing and speaking to reflect "she/he."

20. Discuss salaries; ask for a salary review. Open discussion of salaries is one way to determine whether women are being treated equitably.

Handout for Activity V

ROLE MODEL LIFE LINE

Childhood / Adolescence / Young Adulthood / Present

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UNIT 4

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION: A WORKSHOP

Nan Scott
Coordinator

INTRODUCTION

This workshop packet is designed to be used as a guide for a day-long inservice session for public school teachers and counselors to acquaint them with issues of sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in the educational setting. The suggested format for presentation is a general session followed by a special interest session. The general session is appropriate for use with elementary or secondary school audiences and can be viewed as an orientation over two major content areas: (1) the effects of sex-role stereotyping, and (2) sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in educational settings. Lecturettes, suggested media, and learning activities that require audience participation are presented to accomplish the general session objectives.

The special interest session is designed for teachers and counselors in the public schools. It is geared specifically to develop an awareness of the effects of sex bias in one's own setting, classroom or guidance office, and to provide strategies for eliminating such bias. A section entitled "Lesson Plans for Public Schools" is included as a handout. It provides teachers and counselors with specific activities designed to promote sex equity in the public schools.

A facilitator preparation section precedes the narrative of each session. This section provides the presenter with information regarding necessary equipment or any special preparation that is needed for that specific session. A list of objectives for each session precedes the facilitator preparation section. Copies of worksheets for group activities are provided following the appropriate session. The appendices contain additional copies of the worksheets, an article on sex-affirmative counseling, and an annotated bibliography.

OUTLINE

Session 1: An Overview: Sex-Affirmative Action in Education

A. Presentation of Definitions
B. Group Activity: Defining the Roles
C. Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Action in Education: An Introductory Assessment

Session 2: Focusing In: Sex-Affirmative Education in Your School

A. Introduction Exercise
B. Lecturette
C. Group Activity: The Sex-Affirmative Educator
D. Group Activity: Sex Affirmative Education in Action
E. Group Activity: What Can Be Done about Biased Textbooks?
F. Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for the Public School
G. Group Activity: Commitment Support Dyad

SESSION 1

AN OVERVIEW: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION

OBJECTIVES

1. To develop an understanding of the meaning of the following terms: (1) socialization, (2) sex role, (3) sexism, (4) sex discriminatory, (5) sex biased, (6) sex fair, and (7) sex affirmative.

2. To provide an overview of the effects of sex-role stereotyping.

3. To document the existence of sex-role stereotyping in public school systems.

4. To begin to assess one's own school environment for evidence of sex-role stereotyping.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

Read the objectives, the materials-needed section and the article "Sex-Affirmative Counseling: The Counselor as Change Agent," page 4/55. Prepare the transparency of definitions, page 4/11, and make photocopies of Worksheets I and II (pp. 4/12-4/13) to be used with the overhead projector as you deliver the lecture. Read over the lecturettes until you feel comfortable enough to present them paraphrased into your own words. Study the two learning activities, "Defining the Roles" (p. 4/9) and "Sex-Affirmative Action in Education: An Introductory Assessment" (p. 4/10), until you feel that you are prepared to facilitate the activities with your group.

Materials Needed

Overhead projector with transparency of definitions, (p. 4/11).

Copies of Worksheet I: Defining the Roles (p. 4/13).

Copies of Worksheet II: Sex-Affirmative Action in Education: An Introductory Assessment (p. 4/15).

Supplemental Materials

See "Sex-Affirmative Media List," page 4/47, for films recommended for use in the general session.

LECTURE

Education: The American Dream! The Great Equalizer! People in America have always expressed support for the rights of all people to equal educational opportunities. It is an integral part of the democratic philosophy to insure the equal access to education for all Americans. In the fifties, we began to be aware of inequities in the educational system. The Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka decision of 1954 put an end to the so-called "separate but equal" dual system of education of Black and white children. The courts concluded it was separate but inherently unequal in the quality of educational experience and life preparation for minority children.

Another dual system exists in American education. It is the double standard of education applied to males and females within our school system. Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 was instituted in recognition of this dual system of education. It is a civil rights law prohibiting sex discrimination in educational programs and activities receiving Federal financial assistance. It protects students from preschool through graduate school, as well as educational professionals and support staff, from sex discrimination.

The preamble of Title IX states: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving Federal funding." The Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. is responsible for the enforcement of Title IX. Noncompliance with Title IX could result in loss of federal funds to a school district.

The following definitions will be helpful in beginning to identify the major contributors to the inequities that exist in the dual system of education.

Presentation of Definitions:

1. Show overhead transparency: "Sex-Affirmative Action: Definitions" (p. 4/11).
2. Read through the definitions with the group.
3. Ask if everyone is clear on the differences between the various terms. (In case there is any confusion, be prepared to provide additional examples.)

The school, as a primary socializer, has prepared children for their roles in society. In the past, roles in American society have been organized and prescribed on the basis of sex. When our society was less complex, it was the role of the male to work outside the home to earn the necessary income for his family. The female filled the role of homemaker, working inside the home caring for the family and supporting the male's economic efforts. Traditionalists may say this is only natural; men and women are biologically determined to fulfill these different roles. Evidence from cross-cultural research, however, does not support the biological argument.

Margaret Mead (1949), in her classic study of male and female roles across cultures, described societies exhibiting numerous patterns of sex-role variation. For example, she located one tribe, the Arapesh, in which both males and females were socialized to be gentle and passive. In Western society this type of sex-role socialization is typically deemed appropriate only for females. Another tribe, the Mundugomor, socialized both males and females to be instrumental and aggressive; this socialization pattern is similar to the male sex-role stereotypic socialization process found in Western society. A third society, the Tchambuli, exhibited the exact reverse pattern of sex-role socialization found in Western society: males were socialized to be passive and decorative and females were socialized to be instrumental and aggressive. Mead concluded that the expectations and needs of a particular society determine the sex-role behavior of its members. Similar findings by Barry, Child and Bacon (1957) and Whiting (1963) have confirmed Mead's conclusion.

The American social context has changed. Inflation requires that in many families, both husband and wife work outside the home: the number of one-parent families has increased greatly, more women are entering the labor market, and the median family size is smaller. In 1976, there were 56.7 million families in the United States; women headed 7.7 million of those families. One-third of the families headed by women were in poverty.*

Women comprised 41% of the American labor force as of November 1977. Labor-force projections estimate that 12 million more women will be working by 1990; this figure represents more than one out of two women over 18. The old stereotype of the woman as a temporary worker for supplemental money is obsolete. The 1970 census data show women working an average of 22.9 years of their adult lives, and they do so out of economic necessity. Yet women continue to be concentrated in a small number of low status occupations; two out of three persons living in poverty are women. According to the Labor Department, a female college graduate working full time can expect to earn less than a male with only a high school education.

Although 80% of American women work outside the home for a significant portion of their adult lives, research indicates that educational institutions have not prepared females to accurately assess their interests and skills in preparation for the increasing inevitability of participation in the work force (Diamond, 1975; Harrison, 1973). Instead, biased curriculum materials and different teacher and counselor attitudes continue to present female students with stereotypic images of a passive female child who grows up to be a middle-class housewife. The reality of the increased number of one-parent families and the fact that inflation

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*Source for statistics: Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics *often requires the financial contribution of both parents are often not addressed. If individuals are to learn coping skills appropriate for a complex and changing society, sex-role stereotypes must be eliminated. The following exercise will emphasize this statement.*

Group Activity: Defining the Roles

1. Distribute Worksheet I: Defining the Roles (p. 4/13). (Be sure you have marked one-third of the worksheets Female, one-third Male, and the remaining one-third Healthy Adult.
2. With the group, read over the directions printed on the worksheet.
3. Provide 5-10 minutes for participants to check appropriate adjectives.
4. Print Male, Female and Healthy Adult on chalkboard or newsprint, asking for group volunteers to provide their chosen adjectives under each heading.
5. The lists should make the following conclusion obvious: Healthy adult and healthy male characteristics are more closely related than those chosen as female attributes. (If this does not happen with your group, explain that it is the usual pattern and move on with the discussion.)

In 1972, Broverman and her research associates distributed checklists similar to the one we have just completed to randomly selected helping professionals and found that a "double standard" of mental health existed. Stereotypic male characteristics such as assertiveness and competitiveness were valued by the helping professionals as indicators of healthy adult development. In contrast, stereotypic female traits such as passivity and dependence were not included as desirable for healthy adult development. How can a female ever take her place as a responsible adult if she is confined to a sex-role stereotype that is in conflict with healthy adult development? On the other hand, characteristics such as compassion and cooperativeness that are usually attributed to females are traits that would certainly be desirable for healthy males.

Bem (1976) concludes that effective functioning in a changing, complex society requires that a person have all the positive attributes of masculinity and femininity. A person embodying such a combination of characteristics is labeled "androgynous" by Bem. She describes an androgynous female as being expressive, i.e., caring, sensitive and cooperative (the female stereotype), but at the same time capable of instrumental responses such as assertiveness and competitiveness--components of the male stereotype. The androgynous male is similarly characterized as being both expressive and instrumental, depending upon the behavioral requirement of the specific situation. An androgynous person would be able to develop to the maximum potential in all areas of human endeavor.

Is the education of people to their fullest potential, irrespective of gender identity, a lofty and unrealistic goal? No more so than the line in the U.S. Constitution that asserts that all people are created equal and guaranteed the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The goal of the sex-affirmative American educator is in the American tradition and is a challenge in tune with the times.

The following questions are designed to assist the educator in identifying areas of sex-bias within the school setting. This will be the first necessary step toward sex-affirmative education.

Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Action in Education: An Introductory Assessment

1. Distribute Worksheet II: Sex-Affirmative Action in Education: An Introductory Assessment (p. 4/15).
2. Ask participants to read over and respond to the items as they apply in each of their own schools.
3. Provide approximately 10 minutes for the participants to complete the workshop.
4. Announce a 15-minute break, which will be followed by the special interest session, "The Sex-Affirmative Educator."

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: DEFINITIONS

Socialization: The learning processes and experiences through which people acquire socially approved behaviors for their particular place in a society. In Western culture there are many socializing institutions, such as the nuclear family, religion, and the educational system.

Sex Role. A particular constellation of behaviors defined by society that are associated with being either male or female. Like all role behaviors, male and female sex-role behavior is complementary. In other words, when we talk about woman's role, the complementary man's role is implicit. That is why without a men's liberation there can be only a limited women's liberation from ascribed sex roles. As men and women begin to develop an awareness of sex roles, they can begin to focus on self-importance rather than role importance.

Sexism. An assumption that the human sexes have distinctive abilities, interests and values that determine their respective lives. It is a belief in sex roles, and it usually involves the notion that one sex is superior to and has the right to rule or have advantage over the other.

Sex Discriminatory. Describes behaviors or materials that are in violation of Title IX, those which obviously discriminate against females or males. An example is a vocational training program which only admits males.

Sex Biased. Describes materials or behaviors that contain references which treat males and females differentially. An example is a curriculum that contains illustrations portraying males or females stereotypically, suggesting that certain behaviors or occupations are more appropriate for one sex than the other.

Sex Fair.* Describes materials or behaviors that treat females and males in an equal way. An example of sex-fair materials are those that portray males and females in the same types of careers, performing similar roles.

Sex Affirmative.* Describes materials and behaviors that recognize the impact of sex-role socialization and make an effort to overcome its effect. Examples of sex-affirmative materials are ones that explore a person's career choice and encourage him or her to consider a range of alternatives, instead of choosing on the basis of sex-role stereotypic assumptions.

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*Definitions from Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education (in press)

WORKSHEET I: DEFINING THE ROLES

Underline the adjectives that are most descriptive of the person listed in the right-hand corner of this page.

curious
expressive
strong
intelligent
soft-spoken
decisive
verbal
childlike
initiating
superstitious
instrumental

passive
moody
quick-minded
sensitive
articulate
caring
attractive
active
athletic
supportive
creative

WORKSHEET II: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION: AN INTRODUCTORY ASSESSMENT

1. Within your school, what types or examples of differential treatment of female and male students can you identify:

   a. in the classroom?

   b. in curriculum materials?

   c. in counseling materials or practices?

2. What steps have you, or other school personnel, taken to reduce sex discrimination or bias?

3. List some of the primary barriers to sex equity in your school:

   a. in teacher attitudes and behaviors?

   b. in student attitudes and behaviors?

   c. in counselor attitudes and behaviors?

   d. in school policies and practices?

4. What do you think will be the most important result(s) or outcome(s) of efforts to provide a sex-affirmative educational experience for students?

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SESSION 2

FOCUSING IN: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATION IN YOUR SCHOOL

OBJECTIVES

1. To identify three areas of potential sex bias in the classroom and counseling setting.
2. To examine one's own teaching or counseling behavior for bias.
3. To develop sex-affirmative teaching and counseling behaviors.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

Read the preceding objectives and the materials-needed section, and prepare photocopies of the worksheets listed below for distribution. Read over the lecturettes until you feel comfortable enough with the information to present it as written or paraphrased into your own words. Study the learning activities, "The Sex-Affirmative Educator" (p. 4/24), "Sex-Affirmative Education in Action" (p. 4/24), "What Can Be Done about Biased Textbooks?" (p. 4/26), "Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for the Public School" (p. 4/26), and "Commitment Support Dyad" (p. 4/27).

Materials Needed

Copies of Worksheet III: The Sex-Affirmative Educator (p. 4/29).

Copies of Worksheet IV: Sex-Affirmative Education in Action (p. 4/31).

Copies of Worksheet V: What Can Be Done about Biased Textbooks? (p. 4/33).

Copies of "Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for Public Schools" (p. 4/35).

Copies of Worksheet VI: The Commitment Support Dyad (p. 4/35).

Also, it is suggested that copies of the "Sex-Affirmative Educational Materials List" (p. 4/51) and the "Sex-Affirmative Media List (p. 4/47) be duplicated for distribution to participants.

Supplemental Materials

See the "Sex-Affirmative Media List" (p. 4/47) for films recommended for use in the special interest session.

LECTURE

Introduction Exercise

If your group is fairly small, i.e., 20-25, an introduction exercise will help set the stage for group participation in the workshop. Ask participants to introduce themselves in two ways: first, the traditional way--for example, "I am a teacher at Hall's High School"; second, in a non-traditional way, including information about themselves that is in some way unique for a person of their sex. A woman may say she is a part-time farmer, or has just invested in real estate. A man may state that he is a gourmet cook. As the group facilitator, you can begin by introducing yourself in the traditional and non-traditional ways.

The public school is one of the most exciting environments anyone can experience. The excitement and anticipation of young children fill the halls and classrooms. Most children come into the first grade with a positive self-concept and a real interest in learning. The major goal of people involved in education is to channel and direct that natural enthusiasm into an educational experience which will enable students to reach their maximum potential. Any barrier to a student's full development must be removed. Sex-role stereotyping and sex bias are two such barriers.

As concerned public school personnel, we must take active approaches toward removing these barriers. We must be sex affirmative. In this workshop, we will examine the issue of sex-role stereotyping in the public school, locate areas of sex bias, and generate strategies for providing equal educational experiences for our male and female students.

Three basic areas are the primary contributors to sex-role stereotyping in the educational setting: (1) bias in curriculum, guidance and testing materials, (2) different teacher or counselor behaviors and attitudes, and (3) different student attitudes. These areas are often collectively referred to as the "hidden curriculum" in the American educational system (Stacey, Bereaud, & Daniels, 1974). This "curriculum" is not taught openly, as mathematics, science, or reading is. It operates covertly by providing examples and lessons throughout learning materials that reinforce future adult roles for males and females.

In this session we will discuss each of these areas and participate in learning activities illustrating the concepts involved. Finally, we will assess our own school setting and develop some strategies for reducing sex bias.

Educators have devised numerous techniques that have helped students realize their strengths and aptitudes. However, sex-role stereotypic expectations have sometimes affected teacher attitudes and behaviors.

When students are viewed in sex-typed categories, their potential cannot be fully realized. A sex-fair educator is one who makes an effort to assess ability, personality and potential on the basis of individual uniqueness, disregarding the gender of the students. In recognition of the impact that a sex-role stereotypic socialization process has had on limiting student goals and aspirations, the sex-affirmative educator takes an active step beyond being sex fair. She/he actively encourages students to explore their personalities and interests across a full range of possibilities. Students are encouraged to develop a self-concept that is based upon their identities as individuals rather than as females or males.

The first step toward becoming a sex-affirmative educator is the examination of one's own behavior. The worksheet being distributed will provide guidelines for this examination.

Group Activity: The Sex-Affirmative Educator

1. Distribute copies of Worksheet III: The Sex-Affirmative Educator.
2. Read the instructions at the top of the worksheet with the participants.
3. Discuss each of the points mentioned.
4. Ask the participants to contribute any additional teaching or counseling behaviors that should be added to the list.

Another area in which the influence of sex-role stereotyping may limit the potential of students is within the attitudes of the students themselves. Research by Schlossberg and Goodman (1972) has indicated that the sex-role expectations of children are quite firm by age six. The researchers concluded that students of this age also perceived certain work as "men's" work and other work as "women's" work. A sex-affirmative educator will work to reduce these stereotypic assumptions. One obvious method of helping students to break out of stereotypes is to bring in resource people from the community who are involved in non-stereotypic life styles. For example, a male ballet dancer or a female veterinarian could provide a liberating experience for your students. The following situations are similar to the ones that a public school educator may encounter during any typical school day. By role playing them, we can become better prepared to deal with the situations in a sex-affirmative way.

Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Education in Action

1. Distribute copies of Worksheet IV: Sex-Affirmative Education in Action (p. 4/31).
2. Ask the participants to form four equal groups; assign each group one situation.

3. Ask them to react to the situation in a sex-affirmative way.
4. Provide ten minutes for group process.
5. Ask for a volunteer from each group to report on their group's resolution of the situation.

The third area of potential sex bias in public schools is found in educational materials. Students are exposed to stereotypes long before they enter the formal educational system. The television programs they watch from a very early age are prime contributors. A recent study of "Sesame Street" reported that of 44 muppet characters, only four were female and they were all shown in very stereotypic roles (Cathey-Calvert, n.d.). Picture story books for preschoolers have been found to reinforce narrow sex-role stereotypes. In fact, the Newberry and Caldecott Award books chosen to exemplify excellence in children's literature exhibit the same pattern of sexism: girls shown infrequently, and in limited, passive roles; boys shown often in active, varied roles (Fisher, n.d.). The critical distinction between the examples of sex-role stereotyping previously mentioned and those that exist in curriculum materials is choice. Aware parents and/or children can choose whether or not to watch television, and they can select among the small number of non-sexist children's books. But under the present educational system, no such choice in curriculum is available. A student's education must be accomplished using materials furnished by the public school system. As students are educated, what additional lessons are they learning from biased materials?

A 1972 report entitled Dick and Jane as Victims (Women on Words and Images) concluded that family interactions portrayed in the elementary readers were shallow and stereotypic. Fathers were not shown expressing care and tenderness to children. In fact, fathers were not shown as making any contribution to the family beyond financial support. Mothers were shown as one-dimensional homemakers who were constantly in the background. Using statistical data compiled from 2760 stories in 134 readers, the report concluded that male characters were present in overwhelmingly larger numbers than females were. Women were shown in 26 stereotypic female occupations. In contrast, men participated in 147 different jobs.

Researchers, including Macleod and Silverman (1973), have examined high school curriculum materials and concluded that the same stereotypes found in elementary texts were found in secondary materials, and the the materials for older students were even more sex biased. In the high school materials, fewer females were shown proportionate to males, and when present, were in narrow, stereotypic roles. Males, too, were portrayed stereotypically as competitive, athletic, and achievement-oriented.

These same limiting stereotypes are found in guidance and testing materials. In 1973, three researchers, Birk, Cooper, and Tanney, analyzed over 200 illustrations in career information sources used in educational settings and concluded that sex bias existed both in the illustrations and in the texts. A full range of opportunities for life planning was not presented to male and female students. In recognition of sex bias in counseling attitudes and materials, McLoughlin and Scott (1978) listed specific strategies for counselors to implement to increase sex equity in counseling settings and class meetings. Two of the approaches mentioned were bias-free role models and the use of the card-sort technique for career guidance.

Though it will undoubtedly be some time before sex-role portrayal in educational materials is substantially improved, there are some steps that can be taken. The sex-affirmative educator will make an effort to supplement or replace, when possible, biased materials with more equitable ones. Worksheet V: What Can Be Done about Biased Textbooks? will provide educators with some suggested action steps.

Group Activity: What Can Be Done About Biased Textbooks?

1. Distribute Worksheet V: What Can Be Done about Biased Textbooks? (p. 4/33).
2. Discuss each item briefly with the participants.
3. Ask participants for any additional suggestions they may have.

We have examined the three main areas of sex bias in educational settings: teacher attitudes and behaviors, student attitudes, and curriculum materials. For each of the three areas, we have discussed sex-affirmative strategies to implement. The handout, "Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for Public Schools," provides some sample activities. Take a few minutes to look over the activities.

Group Activity: Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for Public Schools

1. Distribute copies of "Sex-Affirmative Lesson Plans for Public Schools" (p. 4/35) to workshop participants.
2. Provide ten minutes for them to read through the suggested lesson plans.
3. Ask for additional suggestions from the group. Record their activities on newsprint or a chalkboard
4. Encourage participants to mention activities they have used successfully in their own schools.

During this session we have discussed the positive influence educators can have toward maximizing the development of student potential by limiting sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in their classrooms. We have assessed the sex bias in our own attitudes and in educational materials. We have discussed specific problem situations for sex-affirmative answers. We have worked together to identify additional sex-affirmative techniques. Now we are down to the bottom line. How and when will we be able to put our new techniques into action? From among the techniques and strategies we have developed, choose the ones you feel you can implement most readily into your own school. Take about ten minutes to fill in the first two *columns of Worksheet VI, listing the chosen techniques and the proposed implementation dates.*

Group Activity: Commitment Support Dyad.

1. Distribute Worksheet VI: The Commitment Support Dyad (p. 4/35).
2. Provide ten minutes for participants to complete the worksheet.

In the area of social change, the necessity for a support system is extremely critical. It takes courage and initiative to try new ideas, and it is helpful to know you have colleagues who are waiting to applaud your efforts. Ask someone sitting near you to be your dyad supporter. List her/his name and phone number on your copy of Worksheet VI, and provide yours to list on her/his worksheet. Decide between the two of you which partner will call the other to report on sex-affirmative progress in your classroom. Also, if you have any problems or questions on the activities, you will have the name and phone number of another sex-affirmative educator to contact for feedback and further suggestions.

WORKSHEET III: THE SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATOR

The first step to take toward becoming a sex-affirmative educator is to examine your own behavior. Spend a week observing yourself. Try not to alter your behavior during this week. Read through the following questions and become aware of them as you teach and counsel students. Keeping a journal may be helpful. What behaviors do you need to change?

In the Classroom:

1. Do you expect male students to achieve more readily in certain areas such as math, and female students to be more adept in other areas such as English?
2. How do you respond to a student who achieves in areas that are not sex-role stereotypic?
3. Are the examples you use in classroom discussions or teaching situations mostly male or female?
4. Whom do you ask to do heavy chores in your classroom? Is the group predominantly male or female?
5. Whom do you ask to do secretarial chores and special tasks such as artwork?
6. How do you reward and punish female and male students? Do your methods of reward and punishment differ on the basis of sex?
7. Look at the displays on your classroom walls. Are there equal numbers of males and females?

In the Counseling Setting:

1. Examine your own attitudes about sex-role stereotypes. Do you expect males and females to possess certain aptitudes and attitudes?
2. Do you recommend courses or career planning on the basis of a student's sex?
3. A female student scores extremely high in mechanical aptitude. How do you counsel her?
4. A male student expresses an interest in child-care careers. How would you counsel him?
5. In terms of sheer numbers, what is your counseling ratio of male and female students? If you are seeing a disproportionate number of one sex, what are the factors contributing to the inequity?
6. Assess your counseling materials.. What evidences of sex bias can you find in them?
7. Look at your counseling area: Do pictures and illustrations on your walls present a stereotypic image of women and men?

WORKSHEET IV: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATION IN ACTION

Karen Davis is a sixth grader in the school where you are employed. Karen has always been an outstanding science student. In fact, she was the primary school science fair winner when she was in the third grade. But this year her grades have been falling in science and she is not even planning to enter the science fair. She has been elected cheerleader for the basketball team and says she does not have time to develop a project to enter. Her parents are concerned about her declining interest in science and ask that you talk with Karen.

Roger McDaniels, a ten-year-old fifth grader, has asked to talk with you about some problems he's having with his male friends. He recently saw the movie The Turning Point and realized that he would like to learn more about ballet. When he mentioned this to a close male friend, the friend not only laughed, but told some of the other boys about Roger's interests. The boys have been calling him "sissy" and "queer" ever since. Roger is humiliated and cannot even keep his mind on his school work.

Ms. Johnson has referred Mary Anne Bennett, age 11, to you because her behavior in class is simply not "ladylike." She's too competitive and loud, says Ms. Johnson, and the other students are beginning to dislike her, especially the boys.

Several girls in your seventh-grade classroom have recently told you that they are not going to do their mathematics homework anymore, because they have decided to get married as soon as they can. They do not think they will need any arithmetic to clean house and raise children. How can you help them view their future more realistically?

WORKSHEET V: WHAT CAN BE DONE ABOUT BIASED TEXTBOOKS?

General

Develop a classroom collection of non-sexist materials for students (see book list included in packet). Materials (some free) can be obtained from various educational associations (see sources for sex-affirmative educational materials list included in packet).

Elementary School

Use the language experience approach to teach reading. In this approach the children and teacher write stories about their own lives. Because the stories have meaning to the children, they learn to read them quickly. The teacher can encourage action stories that are not stereotypic, but reflect the real lives of the children.

When using biased curriculum materials, make an effort to provide sex-affirmative examples to extend the biased text. For example, design some math problems in which little girls figure how to build a wagon.

High School and Junior High

Discuss the issue of sex bias with your class. Help them learn to recognize and identify examples of bias.

Assign student papers, projects or other activities on topics or persons not usually included in textbooks. For example, the class might focus on the women's suffrage movement and research the life histories of the women who participated.

Develop a NO COMMENT bulletin board on which obvious examples of sex bias from advertising, curriculum materials, etc., are displayed. Use NO COMMENT pages from Ms. magazine to get the activity started.

Ask students to rewrite certain materials from a sex-affirmative perspective. Provide time for class discussion on the revised material.

Invite local resource people into the classroom to provide additional information on the issues that are left out or unfairly treated in curriculum materials.

When students become sensitive to the issue of bias in textbooks, encourage them to write letters or send copies of their papers on sex bias to administrators, publishers, community groups and other organizations that are working to reduce sex bias in curriculum materials.

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE LESSON PLANS FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The following lesson plans were developed to provide examples of sex-affirmative activities for public school teachers and counselors. They may need to be adapted or modified to fit the individual classroom.

Elementary School

Good Things about Me

I. Setting
Elementary school classroom or guidance office.

II. Objectives
To develop a more positive self-concept.
To develop a group support system in class.
To help children begin to perceive their special traits and abilities.

III. Materials Needed
Newsprint, magic marker, and flexible seating.

IV. Procedure

1. Seat a group of 4-8 children in a circle.
2. Tell the children that you are making a list of "Good Things about Them."
3. Ask each child to look around the group and think of one good thing about everyone in the group.
4. Begin with one child, asking all the others to say one good thing about the first child. As the children talk, print a "good things" list under each child's name.
5. As the leader of the group, encourage the listing of "good things" that aren't based on sex-role stereotypes. For example, you may say that Mary is a good runner and Bobby is a fine artist.

V. Skills Developed
Verbal expressiveness, transferring oral speech to written-word skills, group awareness and self-awareness.

Student of the Week

I. Setting
To be used with primary-age (grades 1-3) students in their classroom.

II. Objectives

To increase self-esteem.
To increase vocabulary and improve reading skills.

III. Materials Needed

Newsprint, tape, child's photograph.

IV. Procedure

1. Announce that every week a "Student of the Week" will be chosen (you may want to proceed alphabetically, or draw names).
2. Affix the student's picture to a large sheet of newsprint.
3. Ask students to contribute positive characteristics to print under the student's picture.
4. Encourage inclusion of traits that are not based on sex-role stereotypes.
5. Display the poster in an accessible place.
6. Proceed weekly until every child has had a turn.

V. Skills Developed

Reading, verbal ability, awareness of self and others.

Talking to Students about Role Models

I. Setting

Classroom or counselor's office; group of 5-10 children, grades 3-5.

II. Objectives

To motivate children to think about their female and male role models.
To increase verbal responsiveness.
To examine the perceptions children have of their mother's and father's role.

III. Materials Needed

Flexible seating.

IV. Procedure

1. Arrange circular seating for 5-10 children.
2. Ask them the following questions; after each question pause and give everyone a chance to respond.
    a. Of all the men you know, which one would you like to be like? Why?
    b. Of all the women you know, which one would you like to be like? Why?
    c. What do mothers do for children?
    d. What do fathers do for children?

V. Skills Developed

Verbal expressiveness, listening ability, group participation.

Art Activity: What I Want to Be

I. Setting

Classroom of first to fourth graders.

II. Objectives

To identify the existence of sex-role stereotypic self-expectations.
To stimulate thoughts about long-range career aspirations.
To facilitate creative expression.

III. Materials Needed

Art paper and crayons for each child.

IV. Procedure

1. Hand out art paper to each child.
2. Ask children to fold the paper into two equal halves.
3. Tell them to draw on one side of the paper a picture of what they would like to be when they grow up. Wait about 10-15 minutes.
4. Now, ask them to draw what they would want to be if they were the other sex. Wait 10-15 minutes.
5. Discuss the differences in the pictures, helping them realize that they may explore all their interests and aspirations.

V. Skills Developed

Abstract thinking, values clarification, artistic ability.

Values Clarification: It's Okay with Me

I. Setting

Classroom of third to sixth graders.

II. Objectives

To help students identify their own areas of sex bias.
To provide group participation.

III. Materials Needed

Questions listed below.

IV. Procedures

1. Read the following statements to the class. After each statement, pause and ask them to turn thumbs down if they disagree with the statement; thumbs up if they agree.
2. Tabulate the results on the board.
3. When the questions have all been tabulated, discuss the ones in which there was the most disagreement with the class.
    a. I think it's okay for a man to be a homemaker.
    b. I think it's okay for a woman to decide not to get married.

c. I think a woman can be a good doctor or president.
d. I think it's okay for a man to cry when he is sad.
e. I think it's okay if a boy in my class wants to be a dancer.
f. I think it's okay if a girl in my class wants to be a firefighter.
g. I think it's okay for girls and boys to play together at recess.
h. I think it's okay if a man has a woman for a boss at work.
i. I think it's okay for a man to choose any kind of job he wants to do.
j. I think it's okay for a woman to choose any kind of job she wants to do.

Junior High or Upper Elementary School

Art: Getting in Touch with Stereotypes

I. Setting

Junior High or 4th- to 8th-grade classroom.

II. Objectives

To illustrate the existence of stereotypic images of certain groups.
To provide a creative experience.

III. Materials Needed

Art supplies such as paper, crayons, etc.

IV. Procedure

1. See that students have all the art materials that will be needed.
2. Ask students to draw a picture of either a tourist or a librarian. Provide 15-20 minutes.
3. Ask the students who drew a tourist to form a group and the students who drew a librarian to form another group.
4. Ask each group to make a list of the common features presented by students of a tourist (or a librarian).
5. Finally, ask them to describe stereotypes of tourists and librarians that were shown by their drawings.
6. Move into a general discussion of stereotypes.

V. Skills Developed

Artistic ability, group skills, verbal expressiveness.

Creative Writing: If I Could Choose My Sex

I. Setting:

Junior High or Upper Elementary School Classroom.

II. Objectives

To become aware of the positive and negative attributes of each sex.

To identify one's positive and negative feelings about one's own sexual identity.

To provide a creative writing experience.

III. Materials Needed

Writing materials for students.

IV. Procedure

1. Ask students to engage in a fantasy that takes them back to their birth and allows them to choose their own sex. They can ask for a pink or a blue blanket.
2. Ask them to decide which they would choose, why they would make the particular choice, and how their lives would be different.
3. Provide 30 minutes for writing and then discuss their decisions with them.

V. Skills Developed

Ability to fantasize and writing ability.

Values Clarification

I. Setting

Junior High classroom.

II. Objectives

To help students identify their own areas of sex bias.

To provide group participation.

III. Materials Needed

Questions listed below.

IV. Procedure

1. Write "Nancy and Nick" on the board. Read over each statement, then point to the name of each twin, and ask students to raise their hand for the twin described.
2. Tabulate the results on the board.
3. When the questions have all been tabulated, discuss the ones on which there was the most disagreement within the class.

Questions

1. Once there were twins named Nancy and Nick. When they were called to breakfast, one twin was always late. Which twin was it?
2. One twin helped set the table and pour the milk. Which twin was it?

3. One twin was a messy eater. Which twin was it?
4. At school one twin was an A student in algebra. Which twin was it?
5. At school one twin was an A student in home economics. Which twin was it?
6. One twin loved athletics and played on the varsity basketball and tennis team. Which twin was it?
7. One twin was very popular and won the election for student body president. Which twin was it?
8. One twin was extremely concerned about wearing the appropriate clothes to school and on dates. Which twin was it?
9. One twin talked on the phone all the time so that no one else in the family got a chance. Which twin was it?
10. One twin planned to enter college as a pre-med student. Which twin was it?

High School

Creative Writing: How I Become the Person I Am

I. Setting

English or high school creative writing classroom.

II. Objectives

To recognize the impact of role models on life choices.
To gain a better understanding of students' own personalities.

III. Materials Needed

Writing materials for students.

IV. Procedure

1. Ask students to think back to their childhood and remember the people they knew and wanted to be like. Ask them to identify both women and men that influenced them, and write a few paragraphs about the impact these people have had on helping them to become the people they are today.
2. After 30 minutes, discuss the experience with them: What characteristics in other people did you want for yourself? What influence did women have in your development? What influence did men have?

V. Skills Developed

Self-awareness, verbal and written expressiveness.

Classroom Small Groups

I. Setting

Guidance office or other area for group of 5-10 female or male students, weekly one-hour session.

II. Objectives

To explore feelings related to sex-role attitudes and behaviors.
To develop group supportiveness.

III. Materials Needed

Flexible seating arrangement.

IV. Procedure

1. Select a group of students who are likely to be able to interact together. It is recommended that the groups be the same sex.
2. A rule of the small-group meeting is that unconditional positive support is granted to group members and the discussions in the meetings are confidential.
3. At the first weekly meeting, develop topics for discussion; four weeks is a sufficient number of meetings for high school students.
4. The following topics may be used: sex-role expectations; what I like/dislike about being a young woman/man; mothers/fathers, how they have influenced my life; or friends, why are they important?
5. If the group develops a cohesiveness, they may want to continue meeting on their own in settings outside school.

V. Skills Developed

Verbal expressiveness, self-acceptance and group participation.

Living Biographies

I. Setting

English, literature, or drama classroom.

II. Objectives

To acquaint students with historical female figures.
To develop research skills.
To increase interest in reading and creative writing.

III. Materials Needed

Library accessibility.

IV. Procedure

1. Present the class with a list of historical women; include names such as Helen Keller, Anne Sullivan, Harriet Tubman, Amelia Earhart and Sojourner Truth.
2. Ask if students can recall other women to include.

3. Provide students with time in the library to devote to researching the lives of these women.
4. Divide the class into groups to develop a 5-10 minute portrayal of a significant episode in the woman's life.
5. If the activity has been well received, it is recommended that the class present its dramatizations to other classes.

V. Skills Developed

Research skills, group organization and dramatic abilities.

Media Reports: Men and Women in the Media

I. Setting

Sociology, Psychology, or Family Living classroom.

II. Objectives

To increase awareness of portrayal of men and women in the media.

To promote an appreciation of contemporary media's influence on the values of the American public.

III. Materials Needed

Magazines, newspapers, etc.

IV. Procedure

1. Discuss the various types of media with the class, including magazines, newspaper, television, radio and movies.
2. Ask class which media form they feel influenced life styles to the greatest extent.
3. Assign students to one of five groups: (1) magazines, (2) newspaper, (3) television, (4) radio, or (5) movies.
4. Tell them their task is to devise a method of examining the role of men and women portrayed in their specific medium.
5. Serve as group facilitator and help them to prepare a 15- to 20-minute classroom presentation.

V. Skills Developed

Group skills, presentation, and organizational skills.

Bulletin Board

I. Setting

Classroom or guidance office bulletin board.

II. Objectives

To see the difference between a sex-role stereotyped and a realistic portrayal.

To become more aware of images portrayed by the media.

III. Materials Needed

Bulletin board, tape, tacks, etc.

IV. Procedure

1. Divide the bulletin board into equal portions.
2. On one side use the sign, "Still Stereotypic"; on the other side, "A Realistic Picture."
3. Furnish several articles or pictures that are representative of each situation and post them appropriately.
4. Ask students to watch magazines and newspapers for more examples to cover the bulletin board.
5. The bulletin board can be ongoing, with old examples being replaced by more current ones.

V. Skills Developed

Group participation, increased awareness of media portrayal.

Individual Reading Scorecard

I. Setting

Literature or English class.

II. Objectives

To learn to critically analyze sex-role portrayal in literature.
To increase interest in reading.

III. Materials Needed

Scorecard printed below.

IV. Procedure

Provide students with the following scorecard:

Scorecard

Book Title ____

Author ____

1. The main character in my book was (a) male (b) female.
2. The female characters in this book were (a) interesting (b) not interesting (c) other.
3. The male characters in this book were (a) interesting (b) not interesting (c) other.
4. In what ways were the male and female characters sex-role stereotypic? Non-sex-role stereotypic?

V. Skills Developed

Increased interest in reading and critical analysis.

WORKSHEET VI: THE COMMITMENT SUPPORT DYAD

Sex-Affirmative Technique	Target Date for Implementation	Evaluation of Technique Effectiveness	Needed Follow-up

Dyad Supporter ______________________ Phone ______________________

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE MEDIA LIST

The following films are appropriate for use in the specified sessions as additional information.

General Session

The Fable of He and She. 16 mm film, color, 12 minutes, Learning Corporation

Amusing fantasy that illustrates the fact that sex-role stereotypes can be discarded with resultant benefits for males and females.

Can be used in this session after the "Defining the Roles" exercise.

National Education Association: Sex-Role Stereotyping Kit. Filmstrips and cassettes, three parts.

The first filmstrip provides an excellent introduction to sex-role stereotyping; the second examines the educational policies and practices that have reinforced sex-role stereotypes; the third discusses the effect of sex-role stereotypes on career choice.

Part I can be used in this session after the "Defining the Roles" exercise.

Interest Session

National Education Association: Sex-Role Stereotyping Kit (see above).

Part II, The Reinforcement, can be used after completion of Worksheet I.

Additional Media for Use in Public Schools

Elementary Schools

Free to Be, You and Me. 16 mm film, color, three parts, 16 minutes each, Contemporary/McGraw-Hill.

Set of three films presents various episodes of children and sex-role stereotypes. This film series was originally shown on ABC-TV and received the 1974 Emmy Award as the best children's special of the year.

Excellent for use in classroom meetings with grades 1-6. Series of stories is also available in record and book form.

Junior High (6th-8th grade)

Rookie of the Year. 16mm film, color, 58 minutes, Time/Life Multimedia.

Portrays the successful struggle of a young female athlete to play Little League baseball.

Can be used in class meeting on sex-role stereotyping.

Jobs and Gender. Filmstrip and cassette tapes, color, two parts, 1971.

Two filmstrips examine the myths of "men's work" and "women's work." Interviews with a female carpenter and a male nurse provide sex-affirmative role models.

Excellent for use in career counseling with junior high classes.

High School

I Love You, Goodbye. 16 mm film, color, 74 minutes, Learning Corporation of America.

A dramatic portrayal of a woman in a traditional wife/mother role who decides she wants to establish a career identity. Film sensitively portrays the effects of her decision on the family.

Appropriate for high school family living courses or a group meeting on changing sex-role expectations.

Men's Lives. 16 mm film, color, 43 minutes, New Day Films.

Contemporary view of male role from different perspectives via interviews with children, elderly people, students, and workers.

Can be used in sociology or psychology classes, or in classroom meeting to examine the male sex-role stereotype.

Masculinity. Filmstrip and records, color, 41 minutes, Warren Schloat.

A study of men today and their impact on the world. Cultural and historical influences on the male role are also examined.

Use in same manner as Men's Lives.

The Emerging Woman. 16 mm film, black and white, 40 minutes, Film Image, 1974.

A history of women in the United States from colonial times to present day. Shows women in social and political roles.

Use as a supplement to the male-dominated American history curriculum.

Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad. 16 mm, black and white, 54 minutes, Contemporary/McGraw-Hill.

Historical biography of a remarkable Black woman slave.

Use in American History class.

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS LIST

American Association of University Women
2401 Virginia Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Woman's History Research Center
2325 Oak Street
Berkeley, California 94708

The Feminist Press
Box 334
SUNY/Old Westbury
Old Westbury, New York 11568
(Biographies on women, non-sexist children's literature, clearinghouse on women's studies)

KNOW, Inc.
P.O. Box 86031
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15221

National Education Association
Washington, D.C.

Project on the Status and Education of Women
Association of American Colleges
1818 R. Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

Resource Center for Sex Roles in Education
The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education
Suite 918
1156 15th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(Newsletter and resource list)

U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
Office of the General Counsel
1800 G. Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20506
(Job discrimination information)

Women's Action Alliance
370 Lexington Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Women's Bureau Publications
U.S. Department of Labor
Superintendent of Documents
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402
(For information on women and many other topics concerning information on careers and women in labor force)

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Macleod, J. S. & Silverman, S. T. You won't do: What textbooks on U.S. government teach high school girls. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: KNOW, 1973.

McLoughlin, M. E. & Scott, N. E. Sex-affirmative counseling: The counselor as change agent. Tennessee Education, 7, 1978, 21-27.

Schlossberg, N. K. & Goodman, J. A woman's place: Children's sex-typing of occupations. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 20, 1972, 226-270.

Stacey, J., Bereaud, S. & Daniels, J. And Jill came tumbling after: Sexism in American education. New York: Dell, 1974.

Women on Words and Images. Dick and Jane as victims: Sex stereotyping in children's readers. Princeton, New Jersey: WOWI, 1972.

Appendix A: Copies of Session Worksheets

____

WORKSHEET I: DEFINING THE ROLES

Underline the adjectives that are most descriptive of the person listed in the right-hand corner of this page.

curious
expressive
strong
intelligent
soft-spoken
decisive
verbal
childlike
initiating
superstitious
instrumental
passive
moody
quick-minded
sensitive
articulate
caring
attractive
active
athletic
supportive
creative

WORKSHEET II: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN EDUCATION: AN INTRODUCTORY ASSESSMENT

1. Within your school, what types or examples of differential treatment of female and male students can you identify:

   a. in the classroom?

   b. in curriculum materials?

   c. in counseling materials or practices?

2. What steps have you, or other school personnel, taken to reduce sex discrimination or bias?

3. List the primary barriers to sex equity in your school:

   a. in teacher attitudes and behaviors?

   b. in student attitudes and behaviors?

   c. in counselor attitudes and behaviors?

   d. in school policies and practices?

4. What do you think will be the most important result(s) or outcome(s) of efforts to provide a sex-affirmative educational experience for students?

WORKSHEET III: THE SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATOR

The first step to take toward becoming a sex-affirmative educator is to examine your own behavior. Spend a week observing yourself. Try not to alter your behavior during this week. Read through the following questions and become aware of them as you teach and counsel students. Keeping a journal may be helpful. What behaviors do you need to change?

In the Classroom:

1. Do you expect male students to achieve more readily in certain areas such as math, and female students to be more adept in other areas such as English?
2. How do you respond to a student who achieves in areas that are not sex-role stereotypic?
3. Are the examples you use in classroom discussions or teaching situations mostly male or female?
4. Whom do you ask to do heavy chores in your classroom? Is the group predominantly male or female?
5. Whom do you ask to do secretarial chores and special tasks such as artwork?
6. How do you reward and punish female and male students? Do your methods of reward and punishment differ on the basis of sex?
7. Look at the displays on your classroom walls. Are there equal numbers of males and females?

In the Counseling Setting:

1. Examine your own attitudes about sex-role stereotypes. Do you expect males and females to possess certain aptitudes and attitudes?
2. Do you recommend courses on career planning on the basis of a student's sex?
3. A female student scores extremely high in mechanical aptitude. How do you counsel her?
4. A male student expresses an interest in child-care careers. How do you counsel him?
5. In terms of sheer numbers, what is your counseling ratio of male and female students? If you are seeing a disproportionate number of one sex, what are the factors contributing to the inequity?
6. Assess your counseling materials. What evidences of sex bias can you find in them?
7. Look at your counseling area: Do pictures and illustrations on your walls present a stereotypic image of women and men?

WORKSHEET IV: SEX-AFFIRMATIVE EDUCATION IN ACTION

Karen Davis is a sixth grader in the school where you are employed. Karen has always been an outstanding science student; in fact, she was the primary school science fair winner when she was in the third grade. But this year her grades have been falling in science and she is not even planning to enter the science fair. She has been elected cheerleader for the basketball team and says she does not have time to develop a project to enter. Her parents are concerned about her declining interest in science and ask that you talk with Karen.

Roger McDaniels, a ten-year-old fifth grader, has asked to talk with you about some problems he's having with his male friends. He recently saw the movie The Turning Point and realized that he would like to learn more about ballet. When he mentioned this to a close male friend, the friend not only laughed, but told some of the other boys about Roger's interests. The boys have been calling him "sissy" and "queer" ever since. Roger is humiliated and cannot even keep his mind on his school work.

Ms. Johnson has referred Mary Ann Bennett, age 11, to you because her behavior in class is simply not "ladylike." She's too competitive and loud, says Ms. Johnson, and the other students are beginning to dislike her, especially the boys.

Several girls in your seventh-grade classroom have recently told you that they are not going to do their mathematics homework anymore because they have decided to get married as soon as they can. They do not think they will need any arithmetic to clean house and raise children. How can you help them view their future more realistically?

WORKSHEET V: WHAT CAN BE DONE ABOUT BIASED TEXTBOOKS?

General

Develop a classroom collection of non-sexist materials for students (see book list included in packet). Materials (some free) can be obtained from various educational associations (see sources for sex-affirmative educational materials list included in packet).

Elementary School

Use the language experience approach to teach reading. In this approach, the children and teacher write stories about their own lives. Because the stories have meaning to the children, they learn to read them quickly. The teacher can encourage action stories that are not stereotypic, but reflect the real lives of the children.

When using biased curriculum materials, make an effort to provide sex-affirmative examples to extend the biased text. For example. design some math problems in which little girls figure how to build a wagon.

High School and Junior High

Discuss the issue of sex bias with your class. Help them learn to recognize and identify examples of bias.

Assign student papers, projects or other activities on topics or persons not usually included in textbooks. For example, the class might focus on the women's suffrage movement and research the life histories of the women who participated.

Develop a NO COMMENT bulletin board on which obvious examples of sex bias from advertising, curriculum materials, etc., are displayed. Use NO COMMENT pages from Ms. magazine to get the activity started.

Ask students to rewrite certain materials from a sex-affirmative perspective. Provide time for class discussion on the revised material.

Invite local resource people into the classroom to provide additional information on the issues that are left out or unfairly treated in curriculum materials.

When students become sensitive to the issue of bias in textbooks, encourage them to write letters or send copies of their papers on sex bias to administrators, publishers, community groups and other organizations that are working to reduce sex bias in curriculum materials.

WORKSHEET VI: THE COMMITMENT SUPPORT DYAD

Sex-Affirmative Technique	Target Date for Implementation	Evaluation of Technique Effectiveness	Needed Follow-up

Dyad Supporter ______________________ Phone ______________________

Appendix B

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE COUNSELING:
THE COUNSELOR AS CHANGE AGENT

Mary Ellen McLoughlin

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November 1977

Published in Tennessee Education Journal, the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. Reprinted with permission of the authors.

SEX-AFFIRMATIVE COUNSELING: THE COUNSELOR AS CHANGE AGENT

Counselors in the elementary and secondary setting should play a significant role as agents of change toward the goal of androgynous* development for female and male children. Through the utilization of sex-affirmative** techniques, tools, and materials, counselors can become instrumental in expanding life options for children--life options which have traditionally been limited by sex-role stereotyping. In addition, counselors can effect change through their educational role by continued involvement with their many interfaces: parents, teachers, administrators, and children.

Sex-Affirmative Career Counseling

Sex-role stereotyping plays a significant role in the self-images which female and male children develop. A sex role is a particular constellation of assigned behaviors that are societally approved as more appropriate for one sex than for another. For example, dependence, nurturance, and passivity have been socially approved behaviors for females, while on the other hand, our American society has deemed independence and aggression as behaviors that are more appropriate for males. As a female child or a male child identifies increasingly with a stereotyped sex role, self-development is inhibited and life options are narrowed.

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*Androgyny may be defined as the development of the full range of human traits that are defined by the uniqueness of the person possessing those characteristics; traits are not developed based on gender identity.

**Sex-affirmative counseling is defined by the Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education (1977) as those behaviors which attempt to overcome the effects of past discrimination by highlighting changes, specifying the inclusion of females and/or males, and by encouraging a change of sex-role stereotypic ideas or considerations.

Four critical components of counseling must be actively explored before sex-affirmative counseling can occur. These components include the self-exploration of the counselor regarding the mind set he/she holds toward sex-role stereotyping; an awareness of the sex-role attitudes of the counselee regarding the alternatives he/she perceives as available; and a content analysis of the counseling materials with regard to blatant or subtle sex bias (Verheyden-Hilliard, 1975). An affirmative move is made by the counselor to explore with and/or confront the counselee when life options are discarded based on sex-role stereotypes.

In sex-affirmative career counseling, the counselor is responsive to the unique values, abilities and potential of the counselee. In doing so, the full range of life options are explored and alternative approaches for achieving goals are considered. For example, a male student who is ambivalent about pursuing a life pattern and a career that revolve around the education and growth of small children would receive support and encouragement for fulfilling his personal objectives. Likewise, a female student who enjoys decision-making and leadership activities would receive responses that indicate a receptivity for such values.

In order for such bias-free exploration to occur, the counselor must continually examine his/her sex-role attitudes and values. In addition, the counselor must develop bias-free counseling skills and a knowledge base in the psychology of sex-role development so that the full range of human traits can be understood, explored and supported with males and females.

The counselor must also demonstrate a concern for the attitudes, values, and knowledge held by counselees. Assertive confrontation with biased attitudes is necessary, especially when these attitudes conflict with stated objectives. For example, an achievement-oriented female student may report that a career in the medical profession has always been her primary goal but that she considers a nursing career as her only alternative. Exploring the opportunities, requirements, life styles, etc., in other fields in the medical profession are critical steps for the sex-affirmative counselor. In summary, the sex-affirmative counselor will highlight the current attempts to compensate for past discrimination and will encourage the move toward breaking out of stereotypes.

The counselor should be aware of the sex bias in the counseling materials and tools that are used with students. Content analyses of current career education have revealed that occupations and life styles are still presented to males and females that reduce the options which are available (Heshusius-Gilsdorf and Gilsdorf, 1975; Lauver et al., 1975). In addition, two of the popular career interest inventories, the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory and the Kuder OIS, Form DD, that are widely used in school systems have been identified as being sex biased (Diamond, 1975). As an alternative, sex-affirmative career interest materials have been developed that serve the purpose of expanding life style and career pattern issues for students (Rice-Dewey, 1974).

The primary concern of the sex-affirmative counselor is to ensure that the individual potential of each student is realized. Female and male students must be encouraged to move beyond the arbitrary limitations. imposed by sex-role stereotypes. Because counselors have the flexibility to work with students, teachers, parents and administrators, they are in a key position to have a positive impact toward the goal of bias-free education. Any change strategy will be most effective if all the groups and individuals involved work together. The counselor may serve as a change agent working with each group to encourage bias-free education. Specific strategies for sex-affirmative counseling with each group are listed below.

For Working with Students

- Class meetings: Conducting classroom meetings with students on issues related to sex-role stereotyping is an effective way to open discussion and increase student awareness. Topics for the meetings should, of course, vary with the age and sophistication of the students. An example of a topic for elementary school children is, "Today I woke up and I was a boy, instead of a girl (or vice versa). How would my life be different?" For older students a discussion of "appropriate careers for men and women" could be used.
- Bias-free role models: Another excellent method for encouraging students to develop their potential beyond the limits imposed by sex-role stereotypes is to invite resource speakers who are in non-stereotypic career roles to visit the school. A male ballet dancer or a female chemist might become a bias-free role model for students who have interests in these areas.
- Choice of interest inventory: Decisions regarding the use of career interest inventories should be made after reviewing the current issues described by Diamond (1975). One technique that has been suggested as a sex-affirmative approach is the use of card sorts which elicit expressed interests of students. The card-sort technique relies on the student to make choices.

- Use of achievement-interest test scores: Counselors have access to the standardized tests required by public education systems. One way to use these test results to help students break out of stereotypic roles is to become aware of students with high scores in non-stereotypic areas; for example, a female student with high scores in science. Provide such a student with a complete list of prospective careers in the field of science. Encourage her to continue her interest in science. Notify her teacher and parents of her potential so that they can provide additional encouragement.

For Working with Parents

- Parent meetings designed to increase awareness of the negative effect that sex-role stereotypes have on their children can be scheduled. When parents realize that their children are being limited by sex-role stereotypes, they will be ready to work for sex-affirmative education. Brainstorm strategies with them; help them see that their ideas and concerns are recognized by school personnel and administrators.

For Working with Teachers

- Inservice workshops: Teachers, like counselors, are concerned that their students develop to their fullest potential. Inservice training for teachers is a way of increasing teacher awareness of the negative impact that sex-role stereotypes exert on their students. Help teachers to recognize the sex bias found in curriculum materials. The NEA Sex-Role Stereotyping Kit (1973) contains filmstrips that provide teachers with an excellent introduction to sex-role stereotyping and sex bias in curriculum materials.

- Title IX workshops: Curriculum materials and counseling guidelines have been developed for furthering the attainment of compliance with Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments. See annotation references for materials to be used for Title IX workshops.

For Working with Administrators

- Administrative support of efforts to decrease sex-role stereotyping in schools is critical since their decisions establish school system priorities. The best strategy for working with administrators is to have the support of the students, teachers and parents for bias-free education. Utilize the available communication channels, for example, school board meetings, to voice support for sex-affirmative education issues. Invite administrators to attend any workshop designed to address sex-role stereotypic issues.

An annotated bibliography providing references on bias-free counseling and materials that will facilitate an understanding of sex-role stereotyping follows this article.

BIAS-FREE COUNSELING AND MATERIALS REFERENCES*

Boesdofer, Kent, et al. A Guide for Title IX Self-Study. Kent, Ohio: Kent State Center for Educational Development and Strategic Services, 1975.

> Contains forms to facilitate statistical surveys of possible effects of sex bias in counseling programs. A very helpful source book for self-evaluation.

Dewey, Cindy R. "Exploring Interests: A Non-Sexist Method." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 52(5):311-315, 1974.

> An introduction to the Non-Sexist Vocational Card Sort with instructions for use. Information on purchasing the Non-Sexist Vocational Card Sort may be obtained by writing Route 4, Box 217, Gainesville, Florida 32608.

Diamond, Esther E. (Ed.). Issues of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Measurement. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1975.

> An excellent compilation of articles which provide an in-depth coverage of the psychometric basis of sex bias in interest inventories and implications for counselors.

Eliminating Sex Discrimination in Schools: A Source Book. Raleigh, North Carolina: Research and Information Center, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1975.

Heshusius-Gilsdorf, Louis T. and Dale L. Gilsdorf. "Girls Are Females, Boys Are Males: A Content Analysis of Career Materials." Personnel and Guidance Journal, 54(4):207-211, 1975.

> An analysis of sex bias in two career orientation textbooks: Series A - Come Work with Us (Wilkinson and Wilkinson, 1971) and Series B - Popeye and (career index) (Wildman, 1973).

Schlossberg, Nancy K. and John J. Pietrofesa. "Perspectives on Counseling Bias: Implications for Counselor Education." Counseling Psychologist, 4:44-54, 1973.

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*Materials annotated by Joanna Allman, "Title IX and the Guidance Counselor," The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 1977.

A report on research which examines the effect of sex bias on counseling practices and counseling materials. Recommends remediation which includes values clarification for counselor educators, improves counselor training programs, recommends new materials for use in training counselors, and gives a step-by-step process for achieving necessary changes.

Stacey, Judith, Susan Bireaud and Joan Daniels. And Jill Came Tumbling After: Sexism in American Education. New York: Dell Publishing Company, Inc., 1974.

An excellent survey of articles which examine educational beliefs and practices which perpetuate sex-bias.

Stebbin, Linda B., Nancy L. Ames, and Ilana Rhodes. Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Abt Publications, 1975.

An excellent resource containing coverage of socialization to sex roles, its effect on career choice, recommendations for a sex-fair career guidance program, guidelines and recommendations for sex-fair use of career interest inventories and an extensive resource guide for supplementary materials. Contains a 265-page text, accompanying cassette tapes and dittos. May be purchased for $16.00 from Abt Publications, 55 Wheeler St., Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

"Survey Indicates Progress in Title IX Compliance." Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education: Research Action Notes, 4(1):2-3, July 4, 1976.

A report on a national survey conducted by the Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, which polled school superintendents and college presidents for information related to Title IX compliance.

Title IX Manual. Office for Civil Rights (OCR), Elementary and Secondary Division, 1975.

A compliance manual interpreting the Title IX legislation for OCR personnel with suggestions for handling complaints.

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Diamond, E. E. (Ed.). *Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1975.

Heshusius-Gilsdorf, L. T. and Gilsdorf, D. L. Girls are females, boys are males: A content analysis of career materials. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1975, *54*(4), 207-211.

Lauver, P. H., Gastellum, R. M. and Sheehey, M. Bias in OOH illustrations. *The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, 1975, *23*, 335-341.

Resource center on sex roles in education. *Attaining sex equity in counseling programs and practices*. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., order no. 017-080-0193503.

Rice-Dewey, C. Exploring interests: A non-sexist method. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 1974, *52*(5), 311-315.

Verheyden-Hilliard, M. E. Expanding opportunities for the re-entry woman: The use of interest inventories with the mature woman. In E. E. Diamond (Ed.), *Issues of sex bias and sex fairness in career interest measurement*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1975.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

American Association of School Administrators. Sex equality in schools. Sex equality in educational administration. Sex equality in educational materials (3 handbooks). Arlington, Virginia: The Association, 1975.

A series of handbooks for practitioners interested in equalizing educational opportunities. May be purchased ($1.00 each, $2.50 for the set) by writing The Association, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209.

Burr, E., Dunn, & Fuquhar, N. Women and the language of equality. Social Education, December 1972, 36, 840-845.

Excellent introduction to use of sexist language in the classroom setting.

Business and Professional Women's Foundation. Career counseling: New perspectives for girls and women. Washington, D.C.: Business and Professional Women's Foundation, 1972.

A comprehensive bibliography on issues related to women's careers.

Changing sexist practices. Social Education, May 1975, 39, 326-327.

A recent list of ERIC documents on sexism.

Cohen, M. Stop sex-role stereotypes in elementary education: A handbook for parents and teachers. Hartford Connecticut: Connecticut Public Interest Research Group, 1974.

A guide to sexism in education, usable by both parents and teachers. Also includes an appendix on Title IX applications to the elementary school, available from CONNPIRG, P.O. Box 1571, Hartford, Connecticut 01601.

Cuffaro, H. K. Reevaluating basic premises: Curricula free of sexism. Young Children, September 1975, 30, 469-475.

An examination of the sexist training in traditional early childhood education.

Diamond, E. E. (Ed.). Issues of sex bias and sex fairness for counselors in career interest measurement. Washington, D.C.: DHEW, National Institute of Education, Career Education Program, 1975.

Provides a comprehensive overview of sex bias in counseling and measurement instruments. Includes extensive reference bibliography for further research.

Educational Research Council of America. Real people at work. Cleveland, Ohio: Austin H. Kiplinger, 1976.

A series of biographical sketches that portray various kinds of work. People of all races, both sexes and various ethnic groups are shown in non-stereotypic careers. Can be used in junior high to high school career education programs.

Emma Willard Task Force on Education. Sexism in education (3rd ed.). Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Task Force, 1973.

A basic resource for those interested in sexism in education. Contains classroom suggestions, annotated bibliographies of books and audio-visual aids, and essays by women from many ethnic groups. The Emma Willard Task Force receives mail at Box 14229, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414. This publication is useful for personal consciousness raising as well as for classroom use.

Feminists on Children's Media. Little Miss Muffet fights back. New York: Feminists on Children's Media, 1971.

Annotated list of non-sexist picture books for young children.

Frazier, N. & Sadker, M. Sexism in school and society. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

A look at sexism in schools (kindergarten through college), and its effect on young women and men.

Gardner, J. Sexist counseling must stop (reprint). Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: KNOW, n.d.

Outlines areas of possible sexism in counseling settings and strategies to combat it. Order from KNOW, P.O. Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15221.

Gersens, B. Consciousness-raising groups with elementary school girls. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1974, 11(1), 45-49.

Grambs, J. D. (Ed.), Teaching about women in the social studies: Concepts, methods and materials. Arlington, Virginia: National Council for the Social Studies, 1976.

Suggestions for presenting social studies in a sex-affirmative manner that can be generalized to other disciplines.

Greenleaf, T. Liberating young children from sex roles. Somerville, Massachusetts: New England Free Press, 1975.

Suggestions for removing sexism from classroom practices for elementary school teachers. Available for 30¢ from New England Free Press, 60 Union Square, Somerville, Massachusetts 02143.

Harrison, B. G. Unlearning the lie: Sexism in school. New York: Morrow, 1973.

Analysis of sexism in educational settings.

Howard, S. Liberating our children, ourselves. Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Women, 1975.

Strategies for identifying sex-role stereotyping in schools and for implementing positive change.

Kane, I. Women at work. San Francisco, California: Change for Children, 1974.

Packet of 15 8" x 10" photographs of women in non-traditional jobs and suggestions of how to use them in classrooms. Available for $3.50 from Change for Children, 2888 Mission Street, Room 226, San Francisco, California 94110.

Macleod, J. & Silverman, S. You won't do--What textbooks on U.S. Government teach high school girls. Pittsburgh: KNOW, 1974.

A study analyzing the existence and the effect of sexism in high school curriculum materials.

Planning guide to enhance sex equity in public education: An innovative approach for teachers' education institutions. Raleigh, North Carolina: State Department of Public Instruction, 1977.

A set of spirit masters that provide a self-evaluation format for assessing institutional sex equity and developing a plan of action to combat sexism.

Project on Equal Educational Rights (PEER). Cracking the glass slipper: PEER's guide to ending sex bias in your schools. Washington, D.C.: Project on Equal Educational Rights, 1977.

Set of materials for use in combating sexism in classroom settings.

Sprung, B. Non-sexist education for young children. New York: The Women's Action Alliance, 1975.

At least 26 million American school children have mothers that work outside their homes, yet working women are virtually nonexistent in work shown to young children.

Stacey, J. et al. And Jill came tumbling after: Sexism in American education. New York: Dell, 1974.

A book of readings that brings together journal articles and essays covering the field from preschool education through graduate school to provide a very thorough perspective of the elements of sexism.

Stein, D., Nill, J., Pooley, L., Presbney, T., & Worral, J. Thinking and doing: Overcoming sex-role stereotyping in education. Honolulu, Hawaii: Hawaii Educational Equity Program, 1977.

Practical guide for teachers in public schools; contains lesson plans.

Stevenson. Counseling Black teenage girls. Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 1975, 19(2), 30-36.

Specific problems associated with adolescence, femaleness or minority group membership are addressed.

Tiedt, I. M. Realistic counseling for high school girls, The School Counselor, 1972, 10, 44-45.

Article discusses use of CR (consciousness-raising) groups and other counseling techniques for use with high school girls.

Title IX: How it affects elementary and secondary education. Washington, D.C.: Equal Rights for Women in Education Project, Education Commission of the States, February 1976.

Analysis of application of Title IX to elementary and secondary school settings. Available at $2.00 per copy, Publications Desk, Education Commission of the States, Suite 300, 1860 Lincoln Street, Denver, Colorado 80203.

Tittle, C., McCarthy, K., & Stecker, J. Women and educational testing. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1974.

Comprehensive analysis of issues of women and educational testing. Single copies available, $4.00, from Women and Educational Testing, Publications Order Office, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey 08540.

Verheyden-Hilliard, M. E. Sex equity in guidance opportunities--Resources for counselors, teachers and administrators. Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1974.

Verheyden-Hilliard, M. E. Handbook for workshops on sex equality in education. Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976.

"How to" for practitioners interested in conducting sex equity in education workshops. Single copies free from American Personnel and Guidance Association, Women's Program Staff, U.S. Office of Education, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Room 3121, Washington, D.C. 20202.

Weitzman, L. & Rizzo, D. *Biased textbooks: Images of males and females in elementary school textbooks in five subject areas.* Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, 1974.

Class study of sex-role stereotyping in elementary school curriculum materials. Available from Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, Room 701, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Women on Words and Images. *Dick and Jane as victims: Sex stereotyping in children's school readers.* Princeton, New Jersey: WOWI, 1972.

The definitive study of sex-role stereotyping in children's readers. Available for $1.75 from Women on Words and Images, P.O. Box 2163, Princeton, New Jersey 18540.

Women on Words and Images. *Counselors, doctors, lawyer, Indian chief? Sex stereotypes in children's school readers.* Princeton, New Jersey: WOWI, 1975.

Analysis of sexism in career materials that provides insight for counselors.

UNIT 5

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING FOR JOB-SEEKING SKILLS: A WORKSHOP

Patricia Ball
Carolyn Patton-Crowder

Coordinators

INTRODUCTION

This workshop has been developed for educators, counselors, and community helpers who are interested in conducting workshops to teach assertive job-seeking skills. The materials are designed for use by persons already familiar with the basic individual and group counseling skills.

OUTLINE

Session 1: An Introduction to Assertiveness Training

- A. Ethical Considerations

Session 2: Assertiveness in the Job-Seeking Process

Session 3: Behavioral Rehearsal in the Interview Setting

Session 4: Special Concerns and Special Groups

SESSION 1

AN INTRODUCTION TO ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING

OBJECTIVES

1. To provide a format for Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills (AT-JSS) groups.
2. To review the verbal and nonverbal components of assertiveness training.
3. To suggest procedures to reduce anxiety in assertive situations.
4. To provide opportunities for participants to rehearse assertive behaviors in the job interview.
5. To discuss special concerns and particular groups in the job-seeking process.

NARRATIVE

The application of assertiveness training principles to the job-seeking situation is a logical response to a need felt by most people when looking for a job. Finding a job can be one of the most important tasks a person undertakes in her/his lifetime. Yet most people do not feel equipped to initiate a successful job campaign. For many women and men, the lack of assertive skills diminishes their chances of getting the position of their choice in a job market that is already tight and where, despite legislation and affirmative action, discrimination is all too common.

Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills (AT-JSS) is based on the fundamental principles of assertiveness training as outlined by Alberti and Emmons (1978). In Your Perfect Right, Alberti and Emmons (1978) defined assertive behavior as "behavior which enables a person to act in her or his own best interest, to stand up for herself or himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others . . ." (p. 27).

Salter's (1949) classic work, Conditioned Reflex Therapy, is considered by many to be the first work in assertive behavior. He described assertive behavior in terms of six excitatory reflexes: 1) feeling talk, 2) nonverbal facial talk, 3) the ability to disagree with someone, 4) the use of "I" statements, 5) the ability to give and receive compliments and praise, and 6) the ability to live in the moment and be spontaneous. Wolpe (1958, 1969, 1970, 1973; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966) is another major contributor to the field, with work dealing with reciprocal inhibition and anxiety management. Wolpe and Lazarus (1966) in Behavior Therapy Techniques described many of the combination components in assertion training, such as behavior rehearsal, shaping, modeling, homework. coaching, role playing, and a heirarchy of situations. Alberti and Emmons (1978) pointed out that people have certain basic human rights and the responsible expression of these rights is essential for positive feeling about oneself. Ball (1976) found in a study conducted with college women that those individuals who were most assertive also had higher self-concepts.

The research in assertiveness training (AT) has increased dramatically since 1966 (Cotler, 1975). Much of the beginning research was conducted in clinical settings on a one-to-one or group therapy basis (Bach, Lowry, & Moylan, 1972; Bloomfield, 1973; Gibbs, 1965; Lomont, Gilner, Spector, & Skinner, 1969; Seitz, 1953; Walton & Matcher, 1963a; Walton & Matcher, 1963b; Weinman, Gelbart, Wallace, & Post, 1972).

Wheeler (1977) pointed out that the goal of assertiveness training is to help people learn how to exercise their legitimate rights, to assist them in developing an expanded repertoire of behaviors and to act in their own best interest. She added that these are the same goals for successful job-seeking skills. The individual must learn to exercise her/his rights as a job seeker in choosing where she/he wants to work. Thus, the fundamental goals of assertiveness training--increased personal effectiveness and the development of an assertive belief system--are easily adapted to the job-seeking situation.

Ethical Considerations

Due to the increase in popularized forms of assertiveness training, it is important that both the group facilitators and the group members adhere to the ethical standards as outlined in "Principles for Ethical Practice of Assertive Behavior Training" developed by Alberti et al. (Galassi & Galassi, 1977).

The facilitators should cover the following guidelines during the first session:

Guidelines

1. Group Process: Each person should understand that active giving and receiving of feedback occurs in these groups.

2. Outcomes: Each participant should be given a realistic set of expectations for the Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills group. For example, no one should be promised a job at completion of the group.

3. Confidentiality: Group members will be sharing their ideas and feelings in the group. These should not be discussed outside of the group.

4. Videotaping: If videotape equipment is utilized as recommended, the participants must give written permission for others to view it. The videotape should be erased immediately.

5. Homework: Participants should know that homework will be assigned between sessions and that completion of these assignments is imperative for their participation in the next session.

6. Trained Facilitators: Participants should be acquainted with the facilitator's (or co-facilitators') credentials at the beginning of the first session. Lange and Jakubowski (1976) outline some basic qualifications for Assertiveness Training trainers: (a) previous supervised experience in counseling and group work, (b) assertive participation in an assertiveness training group, and (c) training from a reputable trainer that adheres to the above criteria.

7. Screening: Prior to the first session or at the beginning of the first session participants should be screened. Persons desiring a therapy group or individuals experiencing some form of personal crisis or trauma should be referred to the appropriate counselor (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

8. Group Size and Group Makeup: The size of the group should be kept at a reasonable number (12-15, with two facilitators) to allow for some individual attention. If the groups have male and female participants, then it is best to try to equalize the number of men and women and to try to provide a female and a male co-facilitator.

9. Time: Participants should be aware of the beginning and ending times for each session.

10. Responsiblity: Participants should give the person who is doing the role play full attention and all comments should be behavior-specific rather than personally oriented. Any participant can "pass" at any time.

FACILITATOR PREPARATION

General: Read the entries marked with an asterisk in the bibliography. Review the objectives and learning activities in each session and select those most congruent with the goals of your workshop.

Session 1:

Activity I: Getting to Know You

No preparation needed.

Activity II: Definitions: Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behaviors

1. Duplicate Handout for Activity II: "Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behaviors" (p. 5/19).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture which includes information on ethical considerations and information on definitions using the following:

   Alberti, R. E. & Emmons, M. L. *Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior*. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1978.

   Galassi, M. D. & Galassi, J. P. *Assert yourself! How to be your own person*. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1977.

   Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. *Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers*. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity III: Nonverbal Components of Assertive, Nonassertive and Aggressive Behaviors

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity III: "Nonverbal Components of Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behaviors" (p. 5/20).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture on nonverbal components, using the following references to prepare the lecture:

   Alberti, R. E. & Emmons, M. L. *Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior*. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1978.

Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Serber, M. Teaching the nonverbal components of assertive training. In R. E. Alberti (Ed.), Assertiveness: Innovations, applications, issues. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1977.

Activity IV: Verbal Components of Assertiveness

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity IV: "Verbal Components of Assertiveness" (pp. 5/22-5/24).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture on verbal components of responsible assertiveness, using the following references to prepare the lecture:

Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Galassi, M. D. & Galassi, J. P. Assert yourself! How to be your own person. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1977.

Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity V: General Assertiveness Inventory

Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity V: "General Assertiveness Inventory" (pp. 5/25-5/28).

Activity VI: An Introduction to Anxiety Management

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity VI: "Controlling the Jitters: An Introduction to Progressive Relaxation" (p. 5/31).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture and exercise on progressive relaxation by using the following reference to prepare the lecture and exercise:

Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Activity VII: Homework Assignments

Duplicate copies of Handouts for Activity VII-A, "I Would Like to Have Said. . ." (pp. 5/33-5/34) and VII-B, "And Then I Said. . ." (p. 5/35).

Session 2: Assertiveness in the Job-Seeking Process

Activity I: Definitions of Assertiveness in the Job-Seeking Process

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Session 2, Activity I: "Assertive, Nonassertive and Aggressive Behavior in the Job Interview" (pp. 5/41-5/42).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture on assertive, nonassertive and aggressive behavior in the job interview by using the following references to prepare the lecture:

Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

McGovern, T. V., Tinsley, D. J., Liss-Levinson, N., Laventure, R. O. & Britton, G. Assertion training for job interviews. The Counseling Psychologist, 1975, 5(4), 65-68.

Wheeler, K. Assertiveness and the job hunt. In R. E. Alberti (Ed.), Assertiveness: Innovations, applications, issues. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1977.

Activity II: The Handshake Exercise

No preparation needed.

Activity III: Actively Interviewing

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Session II, Activity III, "Actively Interviewing" (p. 5/45) and attached article, "The Hidden Job Market" (pp. 5/47-5/54).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture on active interviewing and the hidden job market by using the following resources:

Bolles, R. N. What color is your parachute? Berkeley, California: Ten Speed Press, 1978.

Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Irish, R. K. Go hire yourself an employer. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1973.

Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign: Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity IV: Job-Seeking Assertiveness Inventory

Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity IV: "Job-Seeking Assertiveness Inventory" (pp. 5/61-5/62).

Activity V: Anxiety Management II

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity V: "Controlling the Jitters: Systematic Desensitization" (pp. 5/65-5/66).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture on systematic desensitization and faulty internal dialogues using the following references:

   Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

   Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity VI: Your Rights in the Interview

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity VI: "Rights in the Job Interview" (p. 5/69).
2. Use the following reference to prepare for leading the discussion:

   Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity VII: Homework Sheet III

Duplicate copies of Homework Sheet III for Activity VII-A: "If I Were Conducting the Interview I Would . . ." (p. 5/71) and copies of Hnadout VII-B: "Fifty Questions Asked by Employers . . ." (pp. 5/73-5/75).

Session 3: Behavioral Rehearsal in the Interview Setting

General: Reserve a videotape camera and a video playback unit. Practice before the session if you are not familiar with how to operate the equipment. (Note: If group size is large, this session may have to be expanded to two or three sessions.)

Activity I: Modeling Assertive Behavior

Prepare the role-play situation on videotape.

Activity II: Behavioral Rehearsal

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity II: "Behavioral Rehearsal Checklist" (p. 5/81).
2. Reserve videotape equipment and set up equipment before session begins.
3. Review the following reference:

   Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign: Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Session 4: Special Concerns and Special Groups

Activity I: Salary Negotiation

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity I: "Salary Negotiation" (p. 5/87).
2. Use the following references to prepare for leading the discussion:

   Harragan, B. L. Games mother never taught you. New York: Warner Books, 1977.

   Hennig, M. & Jardim, A. The managerial woman. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press, 1977.

Activity II: Appropriate Dress for Job Interviews

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity II: "Appropriate Dress for the Job Interview . . . and the Job" (pp. 5/89-5/90).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture on appropriate dress, using the following references to prepare the lecture:

Harragan, B. L. Games mother never taught you. New York: Warner Books, 1977.

Hennig, M. & Jardim, A. The managerial woman. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press, 1977.

Molloy, J. Dress for success. New York: Warner Books, 1976.

Activity III: Special Groups

1. Duplicate copies of Handout for Activity III: "Special Groups" (pp. 5/93-5/94).

2. Prepare a mini-lecture on the concerns of women, minorities, and graduate and professional school applicants, using the following references to prepare the lecture:

Ball, P. G. & Nelson, E. A. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills: A model training program for law students. Journal of College Placement Council, (in press).

Butler, P. E. Self-assertion for women: A guide to becoming androgynous. New York: Harper & Row, 1976.

Cheek, D. K. Assertive black . . . Puzzled white. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1976.

Figler, H. PATH--A career workbook for liberal arts students. Cranston, Rhode Island: Carroll Press, 1975.

Osborn, S. M. & Harris, G. G. Assertive training for women. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1975.

Phelps, S. & Austin, N. The assertive woman. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1975.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Getting to Know You

The purpose of this exercise is to give the participants an opportunity to become acquainted with each other.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated.
2. Explain the purpose of the exercise to participants.
3. Ask each participant to spend a few minutes thinking about what a newspaper headline would say about her/him. An alternative stimulus would be to ask each participant to describe her/his "ideal" birthday party.
4. Beginning with the facilitator, ask each participant to give her/his name and briefly explain the headline.

Activity II: Definitions: Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behaviors

The purpose of this activity is to differentiate between nonassertive, assertive, and aggressive behaviors.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity II: "Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behaviors" (p. 5/19).
2. Present a mini-lecture dealing with the definitions.
3. Begin a discussion of the definitions with the following lead questions:
    a. How many people can think of a good response after the situation has ended? How many people blush? Are you aware that these are typical nonassertive reactions?
    b. How many people regretted exploding over an incident that seems very small when you look back on it? Are you aware that this is a typical passive-aggressive response when anger is gunny-sacked?
    c. Have you ever left a situation where you felt really good about your response even if you didn't get your way? Are you aware that this would be described as assertive behavior?
4. Conclude by stating that each person demonstrates assertive, nonassertive, and aggressive behaviors and that assertiveness is generally situational.

Session 1

Handout for Activity II

ASSERTIVE, NONASSERTIVE, AND AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIORS

Assertive Behavior

Behavior which enables a person to state honestly, directly, and openly what s/he is thinking or feeling, without undue anxiety. It involves respect for your own self, in that you stand up for your rights, and respect for other people, in that you do not violate their rights. Therefore, the goal of assertiveness is not to get your way but to express yourself in an appropriate, responsible manner, about which you can feel good.

Nonassertive Behavior

Behavior exhibited when you do not express openly your thoughts or feelings but instead keep quiet for the sake of peace and try to avoid conflict at any cost. A person exhibiting nonassertive behavior typically feels disgusted with her/himself for not speaking up and angry for letting the other person take advantage of her/him. A person with this behavior may have learned not to respond in the moment and thinks of a response after the incident has occurred.

Aggressive Behavior

Behavior which involves speaking up in such a way that one attacks, belittles or manipulates other people. Aggressive statements often include dishonest, inappropriate comments which violate the rights of others. The statements may be indirect and manipulative.

Resources:

Alberti, A. J. & Emmons, M. L. *Your perfect right: A guide to assertive behavior*. San Luis Obispo, California: Impact Publishers, 1978.

Galassi, M. D. & Galassi, J. P. *Assert yourself! How to be your own person*. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1977.

Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. *Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers*. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity III: Nonverbal Components of Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behaviors

The purpose of this activity is to explain the components of assertive nonverbal behaviors and to differentiate between assertive, nonassertive, and aggressive nonverbal behaviors.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity III: "Nonverbal Components of Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behavior" (p. 5/21).

2. Present a mini-lecture on "Nonverbal Components of Assertive Behavior" which summarizes Bower and Bower (1976), Lange and Jakubowski (1976), and Serber (1977).

3. Conclude the discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. Why have some researchers said "How you say something" may be more important than what you actually say?
    b. What assertive nonverbal body language do you already exhibit? What nonverbal body language do you want to work on in the group?

Session 1

Handout for Activity III

NONVERBAL COMPONENTS OF ASSERTIVE, NONASSERTIVE, AND AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR*

Nonverbal Assertive Behavior

The nonverbal behaviors which are congruent with the verbal messages:

Eye contact is firm but not a stare-down;
Gestures which denote strength are used; e.g. hand and facial gestures for emphasis, expressiveness;
Body posture is erect but relaxed.

Nonverbal Nonassertive Behavior

The nonverbal behaviors which convey weakness, anxiety, pleading, or self-effacement:

Evasion of eye contact;
Gestures such as hand wringing, twisting the fingers, playing with a pen, hair;
Clutching the other person;
Stepping back from the other person as the assertive remark is made;
Hunching the shoulders;
Covering the mouth with a hand;
Wooden body posture;
Facial gestures may include raising of the eyebrows and inappropriate smiles, especially when expressing anger.

Nonverbal Aggressive Behavior

The nonverbal behaviors which dominate or demean the other person:

Eye contact that tries to stare down and dominate;
Parental body gestures such as excessive finger pointing, hand on hip, folding arms;
Other idiosyncratic nonverbal behaviors, e.g., coyness, winking, holding by the arm, leaning forward.

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*Adapted from Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Activity IV: Verbal Components of Assertiveness

The purpose of this activity is to explain the verbal components of assertiveness, and to specifically discuss the use of "I" language, filler and qualifying words, inappropriate humor, laughter, joking, and voice quality and tone.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity IV: "Verbal Components of Assertiveness" (pp. 5/23-5/24).

2. Present a mini-lecture on verbal components of assertiveness which summarizes Bower and Bower (1976), Galassi and Galassi (1977) and Lange and Jakubowski (1976).

3. Conclude the discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. What are some of the advantages of using "I" language?
    b. What filler words and qualifiers do you use?
    c. Can humor ever be used appropriately as a part of assertiveness?
    d. What constitutes assertive voice quality and tone?
    e. What is responsible assertive behavior?

4. Discuss the consequences of various kinds of assertiveness in the context of the employer-applicant interaction.

Session 1

Handout for Activity IV

VERBAL COMPONENTS OF ASSERTIVENESS*

"I" Language

Enables each person to take responsibility for her/his own thoughts or feelings. For example, the statement "I feel confused on that issue" speaks more directly to one's own confusion than does the statement, "The issue is confusing."

"I" statements are less likely to cause a defensive reaction than "you" statements. For example, "I feel rushed in this interview" is less accusing than, "You are rushing me through this interview."

An "I" statement rather than a question can show more personal interest. For example, the statement "I would like to know more about the administrative responsibilities involved in the job" is more personal than the question "What administrative responsibilities are involved in the job?"

Filler and Qualifying Words

Filler words such as "OK," "uh," "and-uh," "like," "you know," and "all right" detract from assertiveness. They are often delivered in a questioning tone which further inhibits assertiveness. For example, "Let's move on to my questions about the salary, O.K.?" is less assertive than the statement "I would like to know more about the salary involved with this job."

Qualifying words and phrases such as "sort of," "little," "somewhat," "almost," and "I guess" limit statements and therefore detract from assertiveness. For example, the statement "I am sort of interested in a job that involves travel" is less emphatic than "I am interested in a job that involves travel."

Inappropriate Humor, Laughter and Joking

These are often used in the interview to cover up anxious, nervous feelings, and they detract from assertiveness. Nervous giggling following a statement may soften its directness.

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*Adapted from:

Lange, A. J. & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior: Cognitive/behavioral procedures for trainers. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.

Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself. A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Voice

When assertive behavior is exhibited, the voice is appropriately loud to the situation and well modulated. Furthermore, the speech pattern is fluent, expressive, and clear, and emphasizes key words.

A singsong, overly soft, or very high-pitched voice tone may indicate nonassertive behavior. Frequent throat clearing and a hesitant speech pattern may also suggest nonassertive behaviors.

An inappropriately loud, sarcastic, or condescending tone of voice may signify aggressive behavior.

Activity V: General Assertiveness Inventory

The purpose of this activity is to give participants an opportunity to evaluate their own assertive, nonassertive, and aggressive behaviors.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity V: "General Assertiveness Inventory" (pp. 5/27-5/28).
2. After participants have scored the inventory, have them form triads to discuss their findings.
3. Reconvene the group and conclude the discussion with the following stimulus questions:
   a. What situations are hardest for you to be assertive in?
   b. What situations are easiest for you to be assertive in?
   c. Are consumer situations more difficult than situations involving a close friend or relative?
   d. Are negative assertions more difficult than positive assertions?
   e. What body cues are you aware of when you are non-assertive?

Session 1

Handout for Activity V

GENERAL ASSERTIVENESS INVENTORY*

For the following questions, check the response closest to your own behavior.

yes	no	sometimes	
			1. Do you often think of the right thing to say after the opportunity has passed?
			2. Do you often leave a restaurant upset or angry if your food isn't cooked or served properly?
			3. Do you often hesitate to tell a friend you disagree with his/her opinion?
			4. Do you have trouble refusing favors?
			5. Do you have trouble asking for favors?
			6. Do you hesitate to return faulty merchandise?
			7. Do you feel uncomfortable telling someone you like that you care about them?
			8. Do you apologize repeatedly when you have inconvenienced someone?
			9. Do you feel obliged to answer when someone asks you a personal question you think is inappropriate?
			10. Do you find it difficult to talk to new acquaintances at parties?
			11. Do you comfortably volunteer information or comments in a group meeting or classroom situation?
			12. Do you protest when someone breaks into line ahead of you?
			13. Do you feel comfortable talking with teachers, bosses, supervisors, or other authority figures?
			14. Do you feel comfortable walking across a room where several other people are seated?

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*Developed by Carolyn Patton-Crowder and Edna Wieland, Appalachian Center for Educational Equity, Knoxville, Tennessee, 1978.

yes	no	sometimes		
			15.	When someone has borrowed something from you and you want it back, do you feel comfortable asking her/him for it?
			16.	When you get a bad connection on a long-distance telephone call, do you ask the operator for a better connection?
			17.	Do you feel comfortable asking a friend who owes you money to pay you back?
			18.	When a person you don't particularly like asks you to go out with her/him, do you feel comfortable refusing?
			19.	If a friend drops by your house unannounced and you have previous plans, do you feel comfortable telling her/him you are busy?
			20.	When people close to you give you annoying advice, do you feel comfortable telling her/him you don't want to hear it?
			21.	If you are playing a tennis match and your opponent repeatedly called "out" balls which you thought were in, would you confront her/him?

If you have answered "yes" or "sometimes" to questions 1-10 and "no" or "sometimes" to questions 11-21, you may not be as assertive in these situations as you would like to be. Discuss with members of your small group the situations in which you feel assertive and those in which you would like to be more assertive.

Activity VI: An Introduction to Anxiety Management

The purpose of this activity is to provide a means by which participants can reduce anxiety in an assertive situation.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity VI: "Controlling the Jitters: An Introduction to Progressive Relaxation" (p. 5/31).
2. Present a mini-lecture describing progressive relaxation. Utilizing the handout, ask participants to identify physical reactions when approaching an anxiety-producing situation.
3. Using Bower and Bower (1976), Appendix B, conduct a progressive relaxation exercise with participants.
4. Brainstorm some ways that the participants can use progressive relaxation to reduce anxiety.

Session 1

Handout for Activity VI

CONTROLLING THE JITTERS: AN INTRODUCTION TO PROGRESSIVE RELAXATION*

Progressive relaxation: Reducing anxiety by relaxing tense muscles.

1. List the physical reactions you experience when you are approaching an anxiety-producing situation.

2. Tense and relax one muscle group at a time:
   Hands and forearms; Upper arms
   Forehead; Eyes
   Mouth; Jaws; Tongue; Throat
   Shoulders; Neck
   Back and pelvis; Buttocks
   Thighs; Lower legs; Feet
   Abdomen; Chest

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*Adapted from Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

Activity VII: Homework Assignments

The purpose of this activity is to provide between-session activities for the participants.

1. Distribute copies of Handouts for Activity VII-A, "I Would Like to Have Said. . ." (pp. 5/33-5/34) and VII-B, "And Then I Said. . ." (p. 5/35).

2. With Homework Sheet I: "I Would Like to Have Said. . ." ask the participants to describe a situation in which they were nonassertive or aggressive. The scene should be one that the participant is willing to role play with the group.

3. With Homework Sheet II: "And Then I Said. . ." ask the participants to describe a situation in which they were assertive.

4. Form triads to discuss each situation on the homework sheets.

5. Brainstorm assertive responses to Homework Sheet I: "I Would Like to Have Said. . ." in triads.

Session 1

Handout for Activity VII-A

HOMEWORK SHEET-I

I WOULD LIKE TO HAVE SAID. . .*

Name:

Date:

Describe the situation in which you were nonassertive (e.g., My roommate borrowed my new sweater without asking me):

Describe what you said and/or did (e.g., I didn't say anything since she returned it):

Describe how the other person responded to your nonassertiveness [illegible]., she didn't say anything, either):

Describe how you felt during the interaction (e.g, I was furious):

Describe how you felt after the interaction (e.g., I felt awful, really disgusted with myself and I didn't want anything to do with my roommate):

Describe what you would like to have said (e.g., I feel angry that you have taken my sweater without my permission. Is there some reason you couldn't ask me first?):

Describe how you think the other person would have responded to your assertiveness (e.g., I didn't realize you would be upset. I'll ask before I borrow anything again):

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*Adapted from Manderino, M. A. The effects of group assertive training procedures on undergraduate women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Arizona State University, 1974.

Describe how you think you would feel during the interaction (e.g., I think I would feel nervous and frightened):

Describe how you think you would feel after the interaction (e.g., I think I would feel relieved and glad I expressed my negative feelings):

Session 1

Handout for Activity VII-B

HOMEWORK SHEET II

AND THEN I SAID . . .

Name:

Date:

DESCRIBE A SITUATION IN WHICH YOU WERE ASSERTIVE (e.g., my friend Jane dropped by my apartment last night when I had planned to write a paper):

DESCRIBE WHAT YOU SAID AND/OR DID (e.g., I said I would like to visit with you another time but right now I'm working on a paper.):

DESCRIBE HOW THE OTHER PERSON RESPONDED TO YOUR ASSERTIVENESS (e.g., she asked when it would be convenient for her to come by to talk):

DESCRIBE HOW YOU FELT DURING THE INTERACTION (e.g., I felt a little nervous at first. I was afraid to say I had something else to do for fear she would think I didn't like her):

DESCRIBE HOW YOU FELT AFTER THE INTERACTION (e.g., I felt good that I was able to tell her that I had other plans. If I hadn't I would have kept looking at the clock and wishing she would leave):

SESSION 2

ASSERTIVENESS IN THE JOB-SEEKING PROCESS

NARRATIVE

The purpose of Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills is to assist people in developing a personal interviewing style which will allow them to effectively communicate their employment needs in the interview setting. Establishing feelings of self-confidence and self-importance are essential in developing an assertive communication style. An assertive belief system is necessary to exercise one's power in the job interview.

The following points are important in achieving the successful interview:*

1. Assertive behavior in the job interview is a skill that can be learned. Many students perceive the job interview as an unavoidable, anxiety-producing experience. However, the job interview is like any other interaction between two strangers. A certain amount of anxiety is to be expected, but having knowledge of some of the most common interactions which occur in the interview and rehearsing the desired behaviors will help the student respond assertively in the actual interview setting.

2. Assertive behavior involves expressing your legitimate rights as an individual. In the job interview, you have the right to express wants, needs, feelings, and ideas. Your ideas are important and by stating them you communicate that you value yourself.

3. Remember: The interviewer has a right to respond to your assertiveness with her/his own wants, needs, feelings, and ideas. It is also important to remember that the interviewer, as well as the interviewee, has legitimate rights.

4. By behaving assertively as an interviewee or an employee, you open the way for honest relationships with others. After the job offer has been extended and accepted, it is important

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*Adapted from Ball, P. G. & McLoughlin, M. E. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills, Tennessee Education, 1977, 7(1), 10-11.

to continue behaving assertively in the work setting. Whether in the interview or on the job, assertive behaviors pave the way for honest and open relationships which identify one as an action-oriented person.

5. An assertive behavior can be confused with aggressive behavior; however, assertion does not involve hurting the other person physically or emotionally. Active listening is an important aspect of assertiveness that is especially critical in the job interview.

6. Assertive behavior aims at equalizing the balance of power, not in winning the argument or making the point. The assertive interviewee does not put down the interviewer nor does s/he give up her/his power in the interview setting. The assertive participant recognizes that s/he is interviewing the company and the company is interviewing her/him. Language and nonverbal behaviors are reciprocal and parallel in the assertive encounter.

7. In the assertive interview what you say is as important as how you say it. In the job interview it is important to communicate the importance of your experience and potential. The verbal message must be congruent with your nonverbal message.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Definitions of Assertiveness in the Job-Seeking Process

The purpose of this activity is to define assertive, nonassertive, and aggressive behavior in the job interview.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Session II, Activity I: "Assertive, Nonassertive, and Aggressive Behavior in the Job Interview" (pp. 5/41-5/42).
2. Present a mini-lecture on assertive, nonassertive, and aggressive behavior in the job interview.
3. Begin a discussion with the following stimulus questions:
    a. How would you classify your previous interview behavior?
    b. Have you ever been an interviewer? What was your reaction to assertive people in the interview?
    c. What are some specific behaviors you noticed in an assertive interview? Did the applicant seem at ease?

Session 2

Handout for Activity I

ASSERTIVE, NONASSERTIVE AND AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IN THE JOB INTERVIEW

Assertive behavior in the interview setting enables a person to act in her/his own best interests, to stand up for herself/himself without undue anxiety, to express his/her honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise her/his own rights without denying the rights of others (Alberti & Emmons, 1978). The assertive person is comfortable stating her/his strengths and weaknesses, questioning a potential employer on relevant issues, and stating clearly her/his opinions and feelings.

Assertive Behavior

- Is expressive in the interview
- States strengths in a direct manner
- Can also state weaknesses
- Achieves desired goals for an honest, open, and direct interview
- Asks the employer/recruiter questions
- Has positive feelings about the interview
- Chooses for self about potential job possibilities/options

Results

- May achieve desired goals in the interview
- Has validated her/his own goals for the first job in a career

A person's nonassertive behavior in the interview involves failing to express clearly, directly and honestly goals, strengths and limitations. Moreover, the person is likely to think of the appropriate responses after the opportunity has passed, therefore denying the importance of her/his beliefs.

Nonassertive Behavior

- Does not express his/her own objectives in the job interview
- Is hesitant to express his/her strengths
- May dwell on weaknesses or negative aspects of oneself
- Does not achieve desired goal for an open and direct interview
- Allows the employer/recruiter to control the interview
- Does not ask questions

Results

- Does not achieve desired goal in the interview
- Devalues her/his abilities
- Feels guilty or angry about the interview

A person expressing aggressive behavior in the interview may respond too vigorously, making a negative impression s/he may later regret. The person with aggressive behavior may strive for self-enhancement at the expense of others.

Aggressive Behavior

- Is self-enhancing at the expense of the employer/recruiter or other job applicants
- Achieves desired goals in the interview by showing lack of consideration for others
- Controls the direction of the interview

Results

- Develops defensive feelings about the interview
- Does not achieve desired goal in the interview

Activity II: The Handshake Exercise

The purpose of this activity is to teach participants the assertive form of handshake.

1. Summarize the importance of an assertive handshake. Point out that this is the first piece of information an interviewer has about you. Also, emphasize that women have not typically been encouraged to shake hands and may experience some anxiety when doing so.

2. Demonstrate several inappropriate forms of shaking hands such as the (1) limp dishrag, (2) water-pumper, (3) finger clasp, and (4) lingering clutch. Ask participants to share with each other offensive forms of shaking hands.

3. Ask participants to stand in a group and assertively shake hands with each other. After a few minutes, stop the exercise and ask participants to identify the handshakes they thought were assertive. Ask them to specify exactly what about the handshake seemed assertive, e.g., firm but not tight, gripped hand not fingers, not too long, direct eye contact while shaking, erect body posture.

4. Then, ask the participants to practice handshaking with a partner while focusing on the following behaviors:
   a. Be sure the V between the thumb and index finger firmly meets the V of the other person.
   b. Extend the arm so the other person notices that you intend to shake hands.
   c. Maintain erect body posture.
   d. Maintain direct eye contact during the greeting.
   e. Speak clearly and audibly.
   f. Let go of the other person's hand after shaking.

5. After practicing with a partner, ask the participants to form groups of four. Have each member, one at a time, shake the hand of every other member. After each member takes her/his turn, have the other members give her/him feedback regarding the assertiveness of the handshake. Focus the feedback on the behaviors listed above.

Activity III: Actively Interviewing

The purpose of this activity is to explain the verbal components of assertive interviewing.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Session 2, Activity III, "Actively Interviewing" (p. 5/45) and attached article on "The Hidden Job Market" (pp. 5/47-5/54).

2. Present a mini-lecture on (1) active listening, (2) information seeking, (3) discriminatory questioning, and (4) confronting the interviewer.

3. Discuss the four points about active interviewing on the handout. Generate additional examples and responses for each point.

4. Conclude the discussion with a mini-lecture which relates the concepts in "Actively Interviewing" with those in "The Hidden Job Market."

Session 2

Handout for Activity III

ACTIVELY INTERVIEWING

I. Active interviewing may involve trying to understand what the other person is feeling or actually saying. What you heard may involve rephrasing questions and statements and reflecting them back to see if the other person agrees with your perception.

Example A:

Interviewer: Are you mobile?

Interviewee: Do you mean would I be able to change my living location or am I bound to one specific location?

Interviewer: Yes, that's what I mean.

II. Active interviewing may also imply seeking information that the interviewer does not volunteer.

Example B:

Interviewee: I would like to know the salary range involved in this job.

III. Active interviewing may involve refusing to discuss inappropriate information.

Example C:

Interviewer: What are your family plans?

Interviewee: I need information about the job and I don't understand how that question relates to the job.

IV. Active interviewing may mean confronting the interviewer.

Example D:

Interviewee: We have been interrupted a lot during this interview. I hope that we will have extra time at the end.

"THE HIDDEN JOB MARKET"

by Pamela L. Howison
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Job seeking, for most people, is one of life's most frustrating tasks. "In spite of the fact that nearly every adult American man and presently some 45 million women have been or will be involved in the job hunt at some time in their lives, they are condemned to go about the job hunt as though they were the first person in this country to have done it" (Bolles, 1978, p.9). Many use the traditional pathways that often lead to frustration, loneliness, rejection, shock, and possibly a job below one's level of skills and abilities (underemployment). It should be every job hunter's purpose to avoid unemployment and underemployment. Three million people are trying to get better jobs (classified as over $12,000/yr.) and of those, 75% will not succeed. Insiders estimate currently 80% of working people are underemployed (Bolles, 1978).

Job seeking is similar to being a detective; it is snooping for the types of places that do the kinds of things which interest you. After the preliminary detective work is done, one is ready to launch a full-scale job campaign. Therefore, we're faced with the question, "How should one go about looking for work in a tight job market?" It is important to describe what is meant by a "tight job market." James Briggs, Jr., Placement Director at Georgetown University, said, "A lot of what we read about layoffs in particular lines of business, or cutbacks in hiring plans, would lead you to believe that jobs are disappearing across the board. This is not really the case. The situation is localized in certain parts of the economy" (Briggs, 1975, p. 62).

The real truth is:

- The U.S. job market has been expanding at the rate of over 3 million new jobs each year.
- Several million people retire from the labor force every year.
- Even with a minimum turnover rate of 20%, an additional 19,600,000 people change jobs each year.
- With a clear sense of your own skills and abilities, you can literally create job opportunities which not only pay a competitive wage, but also provide a solid basis of personal satisfaction which is priceless (Jackson, 1978, p. 118).

What creates job openings? Almost any productive business activity does. For example: increased business demand, new products, new social problems, legislation, plant relocations, retirement, new management. Virtually anything you read about in the morning paper has influenced someone's job by the time you sit down to dinner that night (Jackson, 1978).

Society has taken pity on the job hunter and invented all kinds of help: federal and state employment agencies, classified ads of newspapers, job counselors, executive search firms, and others. However, some of these traditional avenues only rescue candidates from their immediate predicament rather than enable the job seeker to systematically locate a fulfilling job which meets her/his skills and desires.

The "experts" typically suggest a game plan entitled the "numbers game" (Bolles, 1978). The most familiar numbers game is the resume approach.

> For the job hunter to get a job she/he wants, one must have two or three job offers to choose among from different employers. In order to get two or three offers, one might have at least six interviews at different companies. To get one interview usually requires the sending of 245 resumes. Therefore, should one choose the resume option, she/he should be prepared to mail out 1270 copies! (pp. 10-11)

Other experts place little or no importance on the resume. They argue that no one was ever hired on the strength of a resume by itself. Shingleton and Bao (1977), in their book College to Career, recommended that "you leave your resume wherever you interview, even if you believe you have little chance to get the job. You can enlist the aid of many people in acting as your referrants. That is, people who can make useful phone calls on your behalf to others in the same field or can somehow route you to a job opening you may not have known about" (p. 130).

Various alternatives have been utilized by those desiring employment. Richard Bolles (1978) suggests several options available to job seekers, such as the following: executive search firms, newspaper ads, private employment agencies, the U.S. Employment Service, and College Placement Offices. The pros and cons of each will be briefly outlined.

Executive Search Firms

These are recruiting firms retained by employers. They are looking for executives who are presently employed and rising. The average executive search firm may get as many as 100 to 300 unsolicited resumes each week. Some insiders say they handle 25% of all openings above $15,000 annual salary; others say they fill 50% of all top jobs.

Answering Newspaper Ads

You're still playing the Numbers Game when you answer newspaper ads. Employers typically receive 20 to 1000 resumes as the result of the ad, and two to five resumes survive out of every 100. If you choose to answer an ad, tailor your resume to the ad's specifications, avoid blind ads (no company name, just a box number), and those which include phrases like "make an investment in your future," which means you have to make an initial investment.

Private Employment Agencies

There are 800 private employment agencies, and 1700 of these are in good standing with the National Employment Association. Fees vary from state to state and are tax deductible. They are primarily a volume business, requiring rapid turnover of clientele. Thus, these organizations do not have time to deal with any new problems like career transitions.

United States Employment Service

The United States Employment Service was used by 11.5% of the work force in 1970. In any city (as a rule), one can inquire about job opportunities in other states or cities. Of the 9.9 million who used this service in 1970, 46% found placement. Of those placements, 57% were not working at those jobs 30 days later.

College Placement Offices

There are 1100 university placement offices in the U.S. No statistics have been collected on the number of people hired. Most campus recruiters are interviewing technical candidates, or specialists. The generalist is often not in demand for campus interviews.

Thus, the job seeker must have: (1) knowledge of self (who am I?); (2) knowledge of the world of work; (3) goal setting; and (4) planning and implementation. Bolles (1978) adopted a prescription for job-hunting success which includes the following:

1. You must decide what you want to do. It is not advantageous to remain totally loose. If you don't state what you want to do, first to yourself, then to others, you are handing your decision over to others (nonassertive). Don't adopt the "I'm desperate, I'll take anything approach." This attitude frequently leads to underemployment. However, if a person has been out of work for two or three months and desperately needs a job, it may be best to take something that will meet those needs and allay the desperation--but only take this on a part-time basis and keep looking for meaningful employment. It is easier to go from one job to another than to find work once you're unemployed.

2. You must decide where you want to do it. This involves being honest about geographical preferences/restrictions. If you want to live only in one particular area, then saturate that area market. Keep in mind that geographical restrictions you impose may severely limit your market. You must also decide which sectors interest you (business, government, education, manufacturing and others). Assess for yourself work environments that sound appealing to your tastes and needs.

3. It is important to research at great length organizations that interest you. Your research should lead you to the name of the individual who has the power to hire you and you should contact only that person.

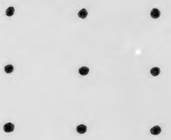
If you've done your research and preparation, it will come across to the interviewer in the natural course of the interview. You will convey possession of knowledge and information through your demeanor and reactions to questions. People who back themselves up with lots of research always cross the finish line laps ahead of those who were too busy answering ads to take the time. In the job search, nothing pays off like preparation.

Eighty percent of all jobs on any given day are not advertised in the classified ads, or with employment agencies. The advertised and posted jobs are only "the tip of the iceberg" in business, industry and education (Shingleton & Bao, 1977). They're found in the "hidden job market" which is a contact network of people already working in certain fields, or those who have friends and relatives working in certain areas. Unfortunately, we don't have a good system for publicizing occupational openings. It is critical that each of us establish our own personalized contact network.

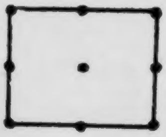
Of all the aforementioned avenues, which is the most effective in getting a job? This answer is none of these. Studies have indicated the most effective job-hunting method is personally knocking on the door of people who have the power to hire (Bolles, 1978). This is critical in that many people are stopped because they cannot get past the receptionist or clerical staff who are screening them out before they are given an oppportunity to ask about potential openings in the organization.

It will normally take anywhere from six weeks to six months or longer for an organization to go from the realization of a need for a position to actually advertising for the position. Most of the time they will have filled the position from within, or from an employee referral, or with someone's friend (Jackson, 1978).

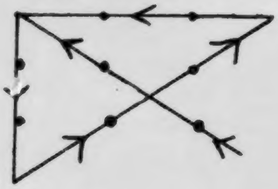
Jim Briggs (1978), in a conference on Career/Life Planning given at Maryville College, Maryville, Tennessee, stated that we "tend to look at jobs in boxes"--as if jobs were merely slots to be filled. If we visualize boxes when we think of jobs, we begin to play by presupposed rules: (a) we often begin with what's available and who's hiring and (b) we turn to traditional sources of information. The following excercise illustrates the point.



INSTRUCTIONS: With 4 lines and without moving your pen/pencil from the paper, connect these 9 dots.



Most people draw a square which leaves one dot in the middle--you, the job seeker. However, once one develops a sense of freedom to go beyond the confines of the box (this comes from self-knowledge), one finds jobs according to individual needs. We are not powerless in the marketplace. The classified ads (boxes) attempt to find people to fill jobs; individual needs and values are not considered.



Why do so many employers recruit through the hidden market? The answer is quite simple. One major reason is that employers are afraid to hire just any Jane, Pat, or Tom off the street. They do not want to waste professional time with any "unknown." Employers hire candidates who are recommended by friends, relatives, and business associates.

Hidden jobs are in every city and one needs to know how to find them and then how to recognize them once they're uncovered. But first, one must do some detective work in order to surface those markets.

Do you know 50 people? Of those 50, can you identify 20 key people who are either employed in career areas which are of interest to you, or who may have friends working in those areas? Now that you have identified these people, it is important to let them know what you have to sell. In other words, what are your interests, abilities and skills? If you have a liberal arts background (say, a degree in psychology), where are employment markets which are of interest to you? If you are a generalist, let people know of your capabilities in different areas.

Your contacts will actually be playing many roles. First of all, they will be "feelers" into the job market who will be letting their friends and relatives know about your qualifications and background. They may assist you by introducing you to executives in firms related to your needs, giving you knowledge of organizational changes which are not yet public information, setting up informational interviews with authorities in your fields of interest, providing you knowledge of openings which are about to be announced, resume review, and others. Secondly, they are forming a support group to share in your frustrations, your hopes, and ultimately, your successes. Your contacts will be giving you a campaign plan, and then helping you to follow it; moral support to remind you that who you are has nothing to do with your job title, or even whether you are working or not; and financial support. Don't make the common mistake of pretending that you have more than enough money when you don't (Jackson, 1978).

Up to this point, you have focused on what you want to do, where you want to do it, and your contacts are busy putting out feelers into the hidden job market. Next, it is important to set up informational interviews. Informational interviews afford job seekers the advantage of talking with different employers about their organization for research purposes. You should choose organizations you are interested in working for and then either drop in without an appointment, call directly, write a letter in advance, or ask one of your contacts to set up the meeting. This should not produce a stressful situation, because you are not actually interviewing for a specific position; rather, you are asking about opportunities in their organization, what type of people they hire, is the field growing, do they anticipate any potential openings, and other questions. You may choose to be more direct and ask that person if they would review your resume. At this point you may ask them about ways you may fit into their organization, and/or whether they know of any organizations who may be looking for a person with your training and background. This person may then lead you to one of their associates who could employ a person with your credentials.

In conclusion, your chances in the job market will be vastly improved when you understand what is happening. The following points should be kept in mind when one looks for a job:*

People

The people you will be dealing with, such as recruiters, department managers, receptionists, employment agency people.

How do they operate?
What pressures are they under?
What rewards do they get?
What do they like and dislike?
How can you influence them?

Machinery

"Each type of employment has its own unique style of hiring. For example, the hiring methods of advertising agencies differ from those of newspapers. It follows that the intelligent job seeker will tailor her/his job campaign to the specific hiring procedures used in that particular field" (Shingleton & Bao, 1977, p.124).

How does the hiring process work?
Who does what? When do they do it, and why?

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*Adapted from Stanat & Reardon, 1973.

Power

Who has it and who doesn't?
How is it used?
When do you have power and when are you weak?
How can you use the power you have?

Geography

What happens where?
Where do you have to be to get hired?
What is friendly terrain for you and what is hostile territory?

Tools

When should you use the telephone and when should you avoid it?
When does your resume help you and when can it hurt you?

Tactics

What works for you and what doesn't?
What tactics do the people on "the other side" use?

Attitudes

How do the people you will be dealing with feel about things?
What should be your attitude throughout the hiring process?

To help you have a better understanding of functional skills, please complete the inventory below by circling all of the items which you have done before, felt that you did well, and would welcome the opportunity to do again.

FUNCTIONAL SKILLS*

- Persuading others
- Instructing/teaching
- Computing quantitative data
- Solving problems
- Helping others personally
- Collecting information
- Interviewing people
- Synthesizing numerical data
- Analyzing quantitative data
- Negotiating with people
- Obtaining information
- Ability to achieve substantial results with limited funds
- Coaching for performance
- Foreign language skills
- Coordinating events
- Managing other people
- Orderly record keeping
- Treating ailments
- Supervising other's work
- Researching in the field
- Making decisions about use of money (investments)
- Developing mathematical models
- Preparing written documents
- Developing rapport
- Culinary talent
- Managing information
- Library research
- Organizing data
- Planning programs
- Training others
- Writing for a popular audience
- Organizing people
- Public speaking
- Dramatic presentation
- Selling products
- Meeting the public
- Organizing time
- Arranging social events
- Proofreading
- Solving problems of a quantitative nature
- Selling ideas
- Fostering a stimulating learning environment
- Scientific investigating
- Mechanical work
- Design of interiors
- Coordinating administrative tasks
- Creating visual displays
- Working with visual media (art, graphics, photography)
- Organizing many organizations
- Delegating responsibility
- Parenting
- Building or constructing
- Outdoor experience
- Counseling others
- Making decisions
- Selling with words
- Writing symbolically
- Safety operations
- Vocal tasks
- Fund raising
- Writing talks for others to give
- Organizing leisure time for others
- Promotional work
- Crisis intervention
- Helping others with physical problems
- Confronting others
- Language usage

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*Adapted from Figler, H. E. *PATH--A career workshop for liberal arts students*. Cranston, Rhode Island: Carroll Press, 1975. Used by permission.

FUNCTIONAL SKILLS (continued)

- Landscaping
- Legal activity
- Entertainment
- Keeping track of funds, budgets
- Committee work
- Laboratory work
- Composing
- Editing written work
- Trouble shooting
- Scientific writing
- Reading technical manuals
- Ability to move into totally new situations on one's own

Exercise

Skill Identification

If we look long and hard at the subject of skills, we discover two important facts:

(1) Almost everyone in our society assumes that s/he is already quite familiar with the whole subject of skills. "I'm tired of my old job, so I guess I'll go back to school and pick up some new skills." Or, "I went through four years of college without picking up one single skill."

(2) It is obvious there are many unanswered questions about skills going around--is one born with certain skills, or are they acquired as one grows up? Do you lose skills if you do not continually practice them? How does knowledge of one's skills aid in a more effective job hunt?

Adaptive skills, functional skills, and specific content skills are three types of skills which need further clarification. Adaptive skills are those which an individual uses in order to relate to his/her environment. Sidney Fine defines this family of skills in more detail:

> Adaptive skills refer to those competencies that enable an individual to manage the demands for conformity and/or change made by the physical, interpersonal, and organizational arrangements and conditions in which a job exists (Bolles, 1974, p. 3).

Fine describes functional skills as those which are transferable from one field to another.

> Functional skills refer to those competencies that enable an individual to function instrumentally in relation to Things, Data, and People (orientation) in some degree of complexity appropriate to their abilities (levels).
>
> These skills rooted in aptitudes are normally acquired in educational, training, and avocational pursuits and reinforced in specific job situations (Bolles, 1974, p. 3).

Specific content, or work content, skills refer to those which are rooted in a particular field, dealing with the vocabulary and (as we might say) "artifacts" of that field. Again, Sidney Fine has this light to shed upon the meaning of this particular family:

> Specific Content Skills refer to those competencies that enable an individual to perform a specific job according to the specifications and conditions of a particular employer and according to the standards required to satisfy the market (Bolles, 1974, p. 3).

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Activity IV: Job-Seeking Assertiveness Inventory

The purpose of this activity is to give participants an opportunity to evaluate their own assertive, nonassertive, and aggressive behaviors in the job interview.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity IV: "Job-Seeking Assertiveness Inventory" (pp. 5/61-5/62).

2. After participants have scored the inventory, have them form triads to discuss their findings.

3. Form a large group and conclude the discussion with the following stimulus questions:
   a. What situations are hardest for you to be assertive in?
   b. What situations are easiest for you to be assertive in?
   c. What situations on the inventory do you feel doubtful about your right to be assertive in?

Session 2

Handout for Activity IV

JOB-SEEKING ASSERTIVENESS INVENTORY*

Please check "yes" or "no."

YES	NO	
___	___	1. Do you make an effort to research the company before the interview?
___	___	2. Do you plan several questions you want to ask?
___	___	3. Do you know what the average salary range for the position is?
___	___	4. If an interviewer asks a personal question, unrelated to the job, would you call it to her/his attention?
___	___	5. Would you avoid an interview if you heard that the interviewer was "tough" and puts the interviewers under "stress" situations?
___	___	6. If an interviewer gives you a hypothetical job-related problem, would you have confidence in your ability to respond?
___	___	7. If the interviewer seems distracted or uninterested during your interview, would you call this to her/his attention?
___	___	8. When you meet the interviewer, would you be the first to introduce yourself and begin the conversation?
___	___	9. If the interviewer skips your interview and goes on to the next job applicant, would you call this to her/his attention?
___	___	10. If the interviewer continually interrupts when you are responding to his/her questions or when you are giving information about yourself, would you comment on this?
___	___	11. If there is a long pause in the interview, would you feel nervous?
___	___	12. If the interviewer never gives you an opportunity to talk about yourself and your qualifications and you only have 5 minutes more in the interview, would you request that the remainder of the time be given to discuss your qualifications and background?
___	___	13. If the interviewer does not make eye contact with you during the interview, would you confront the behavior?

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*Ball, P.G. & McLoughlin, M.E. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills, Tennessee Education, 1977, 7(1), 8-9.

YES	NO	
___	___	14. If you feel the interviewer has asked discriminatory questions, would you file a complaint with the Career Planning and Placement Office?
___	___	15. Would you have thought about phrases or ways to redirect the interview and regain control of the process?
___	___	16. Do you plan to practice your handshake and greeting?
___	___	17. Will you give special attention to your appearance?
___	___	18. Do you know how to "actively listen" and indicate this to the employer?
___	___	19. When the interviewer is beginning to close the interview, do you ask questions concerning how you stand, what the determining factors in selection are, and by what date you will have an answer?

Activity V: Anxiety Management II

The purpose of this activity is to provide a means by which participants can reduce anxiety in an assertive situation.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity V: "Controlling the Jitters: Systematic Desensitization" (pp. 5/55-5/56).
2. Prepare a mini-lecture regarding systematic desensitization.
3. Utilizing the Handout for Activity V, ask participants to construct an anxiety heirarchy.
4. Ask participants to share their heirarchies.
5. Summarize the concept of faulty internal dialogue from Lange and Jakubowski (1976).

Session 2

Handout for Activity V

CONTROLLING THE JITTERS: SYSTEMATIC DESENSITIZATION*

The purpose of this activity is to provide a means by which participants can reduce anxiety in an assertive situation.

DEFINITIONS:

Systematic desensitization -- Reducing anxiety by imagining a series of stressful scenes while trying to stay relaxed.

Anxiety hierarchy -- A series of scenes which come progressively closer to a frightening event.

PROCEDURE:

To construct an anxiety hierarchy, begin with the scene in which you want to behave assertively. This is the most threatening scene. Label it #10.

Working down the hierarchy, remove various elements from the total situation which produce progressively less fear.

When the hierarchy has been completed, let yourself become thoroughly relaxed and imagine the lowest threat scene in your hierarchy. After 10-20 seconds, stop imagining and relax for a minute. Imagine the next scene in your hierarchy for 10-20 seconds.

Be aware of the tension you experience as you move up your hierarchy. When you experience much tension with a scene, practice it several times. Move to the next scene only after you have reduced your anxiety in the current scene.

EXAMPLE:

10. Interviewing for a job.
9. Sitting in the waiting room waiting to be interviewed.
8. Filling out the application form.
7. Walking into the waiting room and giving the receptionist my name.
5. Calling the personnel office to make an appointment for an interview.
4. Making a list of the firms with which I want to interview.

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*Adapted from Bower, S. A. & Bower, G. H. Asserting yourself: A practical guide for positive change. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976.

3. Writing down the kinds of jobs with which I would be satisfied.

2. Making a list of the skills I possess.

1. Sitting in the living room reading a book on job seeking.

0. Browsing through the stacks at the library or bookstore looking for a reference on how to find a job.

Activity VI: Your Rights in the Interview

The purpose of this activity is to acquaint the participants with rights in the interview for the interviewer and the interviewee.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity VI: "Rights in the Job Interview" (p. 5/69).
2. Have participants list the rights of the interviewee and the interviewer on the handout.
3. Ask participants to share their list of rights.
4. Summarize by pointing out any rights that have not been mentioned (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976).

Session 2

Handout for Activity VI

RIGHTS IN THE JOB INTERVIEW

In the first column, list the rights of the interviewee in the interview. Then list the rights of the interviewer in the second column. Discuss the rights with other members of the group.

Rights of the Interviewee	Rights of the Interviewer

Activity VII: Homework Sheet III

The purpose of this exercise is to give students a between-session practice report to prepare for the mock interviews in Session 3.

1. Distribute copies of Homework Sheet III for Activity VII-A: "If I Were Conducting the Interview I Would. . ." (p. 5/71) and copies of Handout VII-B: "Fifty Questions Asked by Employers. . ." (pp. 5/73-5/75).

2. Ask participants to complete items 1, 2, and 3 on the homework handout before the next session. Explain that the handout will be used as a part of the mock interviews in Session 3.

533

Session 2

Handout for Activity VII-A

HOMEWORK SHEET III

IF I WERE CONDUCTING THE INTERVIEW I WOULD . . .*

Name______________________________________

Major______________________________________

Classification______________________________

1. List 5 questions that you would ask if you were interviewing a person with your major to determine professional competency.
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.
2. List 5 outstanding traits or accomplishments that make you "perfect" for the job. These are things you want to "blow your own horn" about and want to work into the interview if you are not asked directly. (You may want to refer to your skills cards.)
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
   5.
3. Bring in a completed Data Card and/or resume.

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* Ball, P. G. & McLoughlin, M. E. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills, Tennessee Education, 1977, 7(1), 5-15.

Handout for Activity VII-B

FIFTY QUESTIONS ASKED BY EMPLOYERS DURING THE INTERVIEW WITH COLLEGE SENIORS*

1. What are your long-range and short-range goals and objectives, when and why did you establish these goals, and how are you preparing yourself to achieve them?
2. What specific goals, other than those related to your occupation, have you established for yourself for the next 10 years?
3. What do you see yourself doing five years from now?
4. What do you really want to do in life?
5. What are your long-range career objectives?
6. How do you plan to achieve your career goals?
7. What are the most important rewards you expect in your business career?
8. What do you expect to be earning in five years?
9. Why did you choose the career for which you are preparing?
10. Which is more important to you, the money or the type of job?
11. What do you consider to be your greatest strengths and weaknesses?
12. How would you describe yourself?
13. How do you think a friend or professor who knows you well would describe you?
14. What motivates you to put forth your greatest effort?
15. How has your college experience prepared you for a business career?
16. Why should I hire you?
17. What qualifications do you have that make you think that you will be successful in business?
18. How do you determine or evaluate success?

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*1975 Endicott Report. From Endicott, F. Fifty questions asked by employers during the interview with college seniors. In Career Planning and Placement Service, Placement manual, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 1975. Used by permission of the author.

19. What do you think it takes to be successful in a company like ours?

20. In what ways do you think you can make a contribution to our company?

21. What qualities should a successful manager possess?

22. Describe the relationship that should exist between a supervisor and those reporting to him or her.

23. What two or three accomplishments have given you the most satisfaction? Why?

24. Describe your most rewarding college experience.

25. If you were hiring a graduate for this position, what qualities would you look for?

26. Why did you select your college or university?

27. What led you to choose your field of major study?

28. What college subjects did you like best? Why?

29. What college subjects did you like least? Why?

30. If you could do so, how would you plan your academic study differently? Why?

31. What changes would you make in your college or university? Why?

32. Do you have plans for continued study? An advanced degree?

33. Do you think that your grades are a good indication of your academic achievement?

34. What have you learned from participation in extra-curricular activities?

35. In what kind of a work environment are you most comfortable?

36. How do you work under pressure?

37. In what part-time or summer jobs have you been most interested? Why?

38. How would you describe the ideal job for you following graduation?

39. Why did you decide to seek a position with this company?

40. What do you know about our company?

41. What two or three things are the most important to you in your job?

42. Are you seeking employment in a company of a certain size? Why?

43. What criteria are you using to evaluate the company for which you hope to work?

44. Do you have a geographical preference? Why?

45. Will you relocate? Does relocation bother you?

46. Are you willing to travel?

47. Are you willing to spend at least six months as a trainee?

48. Why do you think you might like to live in the community in which our company is located?

49. What major problem have you encountered and how did you deal with it?

50. What have you learned from your mistakes?

SESSION 3

BEHAVIOR REHEARSAL IN THE INTERVIEW SETTING

NARRATIVE

The majority of time in Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills is spent in behavior rehearsal and role playing. In a series of four experiments, McFall and Twentyman (1973) found behavior rehearsal and coaching to make significant contributions in increasing assertive behavior, justifying this procedure. The initial role play is conducted by the workshop facilitators/trainers. Through this modeling, participants see the facilitator/trainer demonstrate the behaviors that may, at first, seem awkward for the participants. Some participants may be resistant to role playing. It is important to explain that when the participant is playing the role of the interviewee, s/he is actually rehearsing behavior that s/he hopes will become part of her/his repertoire of responding behaviors. In behavior rehearsal, participants practice the assertive behaviors that they would like to demonstrate in the actual interview.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Modeling Assertive Behavior

The purpose of this activity is to demonstrate assertive behaviors in the job interview.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated.
2. Using videotape equipment, role play an interview situation showing nonassertive, assertive, and aggressive behaviors in the interview setting.
3. After viewing the videotape, conduct a discussion using the following stimulus questions:
    a. Which interviewee would you hire?
    b. What differences did you see in nonverbal behaviors?
    c. Which verbal content came across as assertive and why?

Activity II: Behavior Rehearsal

The purpose of this activity is to provide a mock interview experience for each participant.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Session 3 Handout for Activity II: "Behavioral Rehearsal Checklist" (p. 5/81). Each participant should receive several copies.
2. Ask group members to form dyads for the behavioral rehearsal. One participant will be the interviewee and the other participant will be the interviewer. The rest of the group will observe the scene and give positive and negative feedback following the Session 3 Activity II: "Behavioral Rehearsal Checklist."
3. Before the scene begins ask the dyad partners to share information on the types of job they will be interviewing for and to exchange the Homework III sheet from Session 2.
4. Videotape each scene. Ask group members to give feedback using the "Behavioral Rehearsal Checklist." Ask each of them to be prepared to comment on one of the following behaviors:
    a. Eye contact
    b. Body posture, gestures and facial expressions
    c. Voice quality
    d. Verbal content

5. Stop the interview after 5-7 minutes. Using the following format to discuss each behavior rehearsal:
    a. Ask the interviewee how s/he feels about the interview. Ask the interviewer how s/he feels about the interview.
    b. Ask the group members to describe the assertive behaviors they observed.
    c. Playback the videotape. Following the "Checklist," observe both the assertive and nonassertive behaviors exhibited.
    d. Ask the interviewee what changes s/he would like to make.
    e. Videotape the interview again. Discuss the behavior rehearsal again following the format suggested above.

Session 3

Handout for Activity II

BEHAVIORAL REHEARSAL CHECKLIST*

Analysis: Did the interviewee exhibit assertive body language through:

Please circle:

low	moderate			high	
1	2	3	4	5	1. Direct eye contact
1	2	3	4	5	2. Erect body posture
1	2	3	4	5	3. Appropriate gestures and facial expressions
1	2	3	4	5	4. Speaking clearly and audibly
1	2	3	4	5	5. Appropriate voice quality and even tone (not pleading or whining quality)

Did the interviewee use assertive verbal content in his/her message through:

low	moderate			high	
1	2	3	4	5	1. Directness, conciseness
1	2	3	4	5	2. Choice of words
1	2	3	4	5	3. Use of "I" language/"feeling" talk
1	2	3	4	5	4. Sincerity
1	2	3	4	5	5. Not offering excuses, compliments, or other forms of manipulation, or inappropriate "filler" words.

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*Adapted from Ball, P. G. The effect of group assertiveness training on selected measures of self-concept in college women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 1976.

SESSION 4

SPECIAL CONCERNS & SPECIAL GROUPS

NARRATIVE

Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills workshops have been conducted with a variety of groups in a variety of settings. This lesson addresses some of the special concerns such as salary negotiation and dress. Particular groups such as women, minorities, and graduate and professional school applicants are also topics which deserve special attention.

SUGGESTED LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activity I: Salary Negotiation

The purpose of this lesson is to identify some points to remember about salary negotiation.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Session 4 Handout for Activity I: "Salary Negotiation" (p. 5/87).
2. Ask participants to read the handout. Discuss the ideas on the handout with the following stimulus questions:
   a. What salary range do you expect?
   b. What fringe benefits do you want?
   c. Can you justify receiving the upper limit of the salary range? What would you say?

Session 4

Handout for Activity I

SALARY NEGOTIATION

Most people are uncomfortable discussing salary, which explains the discomfort that surrounds discussions of pay. These feelings of uneasiness may also relate to the competitive nature of salaries. While salary should not be the only factor in the career decision-making process, it is very important information.

Ideas to Keep in Mind

1. Do not include a specific figure on job applications or resumes but instead write "negotiable" in blanks that request a desired salary.

2. The salary issue is not usually discussed in the first interview, where the interviewee and the interviewer are assessing each other. Also, the assertive interviewee does not want to give up her/his power in the interview by agreeing to a figure prematurely.

3. Do not feel forced to answer a question when incomplete data are present. An example would be the interviewer who asks, "What salary would you expect?" The assertive response might be, "I'm not familiar with your company's salary schedule for this position," or "What was the person who previously had the job paid?"

4. Participants are encouraged to investigate company literature to see if a salary figure or range is published. The want ads, the Occupational Outlook Handbook, and friends working in the field can provide general information on salary scales.

5. Decide on an acceptable range before the interview and formulate a rationale for expecting the upper limit of the range. Negotiation always involves compromise, which is one reason it is better to think of an acceptable range rather than a particular figure.

6. If the salary figure quoted is not acceptable, then the interviewee could explore other benefits such as moving expenses, outside consulting, cost of living and/or merit raises, and educational opportunities.

7. Lack of assertiveness in salary or contract negotiation will usually result in feelings of frustration and anger, which could affect job performance. Any questions about salary or contract terms should be discussed thoroughly and assertively.

Activity II: Appropriate Dress for Job Interviews

The purpose of this activity is to discuss the appropriate dress for the job interview.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Session 4 Handout for Activity II: "Appropriate Dress for the Job Interview . . . and the Job" (pp. 5/89-5/90).

2. Present a mini-lecture on appropriate dress, summarizing Harragan (1977), Henning and Jardim (1977), and Malloy (1976).

3. Conclude with a discussion, using the following stimulus questions:
   a. Should women wear dresses or pant suits to a job interview?
   b. Should men wear suits or sport coats with ties?
   c. What has been your experience as an interviewee or interviewer regarding dress?

Session 4

Handout for Activity II

APPROPRIATE DRESS FOR THE JOB INTERVIEW . . . AND THE JOB

Points to Keep in Mind

by Jeanne R. Williams

FOR EVERYONE:

1. Your clothes will speak loudly for your taste--so be neat, clean and appropriate.
2. Better to be conservative than flamboyant. Save the super-styled costume for your date that night.
3. Try to dress in a way that is compatible with the people who are already employed in the company at which you are interviewing. How do you know? Check company literature by paying close attention to the pictures, or asking someone who works there, if possible.

FOR MEN:

1. A vested, three-piece suit will present you in the best light.
2. Grey, navy or a shade of brown are your best color bets.
3. Be sure your shoes are polished or new, and wear socks which coordinate with your suit.

FOR WOMEN:

1. Choose a jacket and skirt or a jacket and dress. A coordinated look carries more authority.
2. Never try to assume a man's look--be feminine but without flounces and frills.
3. Practice sitting and walking to be sure your skirt moves easily without inhibiting your movements and is long enough to cover without tugging when you sit.
4. Danging jewelry is a no-no. It will distract the interviewer away from YOU.
5. Makeup and hair should be natural, as opposed to painted artificiality. Definitely save touch-ups for private.

6. You can feel freer to wear brighter colors than men, but blue, beige and grey are always safe.

7. If you will be walking much, be sure to choose comfortable shoes and try to find convenient places for purse items so you won't have to carry a purse. If you carry a briefcase, such items can be tucked in one corner. Trying to juggle a purse and a briefcase can be extremely awkward.

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Molloy, John. Dress for success. New York: Warner Books, 1976.

Activity III: Special Groups

The purpose of this activity is to address the special concerns of women, minorities, and graduate and professional school applicants in Assertiveness Training for Job-Seeking Skills.

1. Form a circle with everyone seated. Distribute copies of Handout for Activity III: "Special Groups" (pp. 5/93-5/94) for participants to read.

2. Present a mini-lecture on the concerns of women, minorities, and graduate and professional school applicants.

3. Conclude with brainstorming assertive responses to the following hypothetical interview statements:
    a. "We haven't had many women in this position. They have all quit within the first six months. Why would you be different?"
    b. "Your qualifications seem O.K., but your academic work was done twenty years ago. A lot has changed in our field in the past twenty years."
    c. "This job requires you to have a lot of personal contact with the public and I personally am not prejudiced but I don't know how our clientele would feel."
    d. "Our applications have increased by 40 percent this year and the quality of applicants has increased also We can't afford to admit anyone who is not serious about this profession and doesn't plan to make this a career."

Session 4

Handout for Activity III

SPECIAL GROUPS*

Women

More and more women are entering the labor force, and more women are feeling that they do not have to make a choice between a career and a family. Yet despite affirmative action, women are often asked discriminatory questions in an interview. For example, women may be asked about marriage plans, child-care arrangements, or mobility possibilities. Typically, these questions are not asked of men. The most direct response to these types of questions may negatively affect the applicants' chance at the job. One way to respond assertively when one does not wish to jeopardize her/his chances for the job is to answer the underlying question, which in many cases is "Are you serious about your career?" Students can respond assertively by restating and reaffirming their career objectives.

Re-entry women often experience discrimination on the basis of age. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills is one way to encourage a woman to value her life experiences and to articulate her unique skills in an assertive manner. The functional skill resume as designed by Figler (1975) is particulary appropriate in working with re-entry women. The re-entry woman must develop an assertive belief system that will enable her to value the paid and unpaid work in her life.

Minorities

Cheek (1976) defines several areas of concern in working with black students in assertiveness training. He discusses the differences in language and self-expression which differ from traditional white middle-class attitudes. For example, Cheek notes that some black individuals may be very resistant to self-disclosure and have a bi-dialectic speech pattern. Successful assertiveness training for job-seeking skills must address these issues as well as provide an assertive model for confronting racial discrimination. Many minority groups--such as blacks, Native Americans, Appalachian people, and Spanish-speaking Americans--develop a different style of communication. At times the assertive verbal and nonverbal behaviors that are encouraged in the assertiveness training for job-seeking skills groups may conflict with the accepted behaviors in their native culture.

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*Adapted from Ball, P. G. & McLoughlin, M. E. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills, Tennessee Education, 1977, 7(1) 10-11.

Graduate and Professional School Applicants

As competition increases for admission to graduate and professional schools, more and more admission committees are using the personal interview as a part of the selection process. Assertiveness training for job-seeking skills assists participants in assertively articulating unique strengths and career objectives. The highly competitive market requires that individuals be skilled in making positive self-statements, asking open-ended questions, and employing active listening skills.

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